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REVIEWS

Introduction to the Literature of Europe, in the Fifteenth, Sixteenth, and Seventeenth Centuries. By Henry Hallam, F.R.A.S., &c. 8vo. Vol. I. Murray.

WHATEVER comes from the pen of Mr. Hallam is sure to be read with profit. If he is not a popular writer, if his style be somewhat inelegant, and his manner not attractive to the great body of readers, the information which all his works contain will make every reflecting reader overlook this defect. His diligence, indeed, is worthy of all praise; and his good sense is no less apparent. Not only does he consult the very best authorities on every subject he undertakes to discuss, but his masculine understanding enables him, in general, to seize on the real merits of the question. This, at least, is the case whenever he examines for himself—whenever he does not blindly follow preceding guides. He has, to be sure, his prejudices, which, in some cases, evidently sway him, in despite of authority; but if he shares this defect in common with so many other writers, unlike most of them, he is too honest to suppress, much less wilfully to pervert. In short, come before us whenever he may, he seldom fails to instruct, if he do not entertain us.

General literary history (we do not, of course, include that of particular nations) has not occupied so much attention as it deserves. Among the ancients, we can number only a single chapter of Quintilian, and the well-known book of Diogenes Laertius—both so meagre as to be of little use. In the sixteenth century the erudite Conrad Gesner, in his *Bibliotheca* and *Pandects*, endeavoured to give a universal (though not chronological) view of literature. Both these are wonderful works, and they have been of incalculable service to all future labourers in the same field—a benefit, however, which few of them have been ready to acknowledge. He was followed by the Jesuit Passevin, whose '*Bibliotheca Selecta*,' though inferior in extent of erudition, is superior in point of arrangement. A century afterwards (1688) Marhof published his '*Polyhistor*—a work far better known than either of the preceding, and superior to them in utility: but his criticisms are too brief, and with the literature of some countries he is almost unacquainted. He is censured by Mr. Hallam for his "scanty acquaintance with English literature;" but, in reference to Spanish and Portuguese, his work is still more scanty. This, however, and many other defects, were supplied by another Spanish Jesuit, Andres, who, after the expulsion of his order from Spain, became a Professor in the University of Parma. His work, '*Dell' Origine, Progresso, e Stato Attuale d'ogni Letteratura* (7 vols. 4to., and not 5, as Mr. Hallam states), is praised by Siamondi for "its vast erudition," and for its critical taste. It is, indeed, well entitled to that praise; and Mr. Hallam certainly speaks too disparagingly of its author when he says—"His learning is very extensive in surface, and sometimes minute and curious, but not, generally speaking, profound; his style is flowing, but diffuse and indefinite; his characters of books have a vagueness unpleasant to those who seek for precise information; his taste is correct, but frigid; his general views are not judicious, but display a moderate degree of

luminousness or philosophy." Whoever will be at the pains to read this elaborate production, will certainly find that its learning is extensive in more than "surface"—that it penetrates the subject of discussion. It is immeasurably superior, not only to all preceding attempts, but to all that have followed, or are likely to follow. His taste is not more "frigid" than that of other writers; his philosophical views are, in our opinion, exceedingly "luminous;" and though we admit the "characters of his books" to be frequently vague, the reason is, that his limits were too confined for the application of precise canons of criticism to each of the works he notices. His fault was, in taking too expanded a range. He should have restricted himself either to the literature of one particular country, or to certain definite branches of universal literature. Mr. Hallam adds—"The work is, however, an extraordinary performance, embracing both ancient and modern literature in its full extent, and, in many parts, with little assistance from any former publication of the kind." It is, indeed, an extraordinary performance; so extraordinary, that we can never hope to see another with a tithe of its merit in so vast a range:—it is far superior to the work of Eichhorn, to which Mr. Hallam appears to have a leaning. Of Mr. Berington's '*Literary History of the Middle Ages*,' which Mr. Hallam does not deign to mention, we have little to say. It is a pleasant, but by no means critical succession of notices on the chief writers of the continent, from the fall of the Roman Empire downwards: it is derived from names far from recondite, and, we may add, far from numerous: in fact, it appears to have been composed from just such a library as a provincial college (probably that of Manchester, in the vicinity of which the author was a Roman Catholic Missionary,) might be expected to possess, with such additions as a pretty extensive circle of friends might supply. But the book has merit: it is written in a clear, popular manner, and it is everywhere (as far, at least, as we can remember) pervaded by a candid spirit—a spirit for which the priestly writers of that communion are not often distinguished. It is not very creditable to English publishers that this is the only work we have on this subject.

Under the head of Literary History we might perhaps include the various biographical works which have from time to time appeared in Europe; for though most of the lives they contain are not literary, still a considerable proportion are of this class, and in them a portion of criticism is indispensable. This subject, however, is too wide to be discussed here: we can only observe, that the chief collections of this nature are by Moreri, Bayle, Chauffepie, Nicéron, Chalmers, the Authors of the English Biographical Dictionary, and the *Biographie Universelle*. To the first, criticism was unknown. To the second, it was subordinate to sectarian feeling: in fact, the object of Bayle was not so much truth, as it was to make all mankind appear selfish or ridiculous; and he selected from the authorities before him just so much as suited his purpose. Chauffepie was merely a translator—too dull to add anything of his own. Nicéron, the author of '*Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire des Hommes Illustres*,' is a more useful writer than Bayle, but not exhibiting half the

merit of that extraordinary man. His work is defective in being chiefly confined to men of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Of the English Biographical Dictionary it is impossible to speak with too much contempt; useful it may be, but this is not the merit of the compilers, who have done no more than follow preceding guides. Of this unworthy book Mr. Chalmers published a new edition, with, of course, many additions, in 32 vols. 8vo. (1812 to 1817), but of all the literary hacks that ever existed, he was the most complete; "a man," to quote Mr. Hallam, "of very slender powers relatively to the magnitude of such a work; but his life had been passed in collecting small matters of fact, and he has added much of this kind to British Biography. He inserts, beyond any one else, the most insignificant names, and quotes the most wretched authorities." He has more faults than these: he has committed the greatest blunders in translating; and he has shown a marvellous tact in preferring the trifling to the really important parts of a subject. The same extraordinary faculty of mind he has exhibited in selecting the most trifling names in lieu of the most celebrated; and he assigns whole pages to such as should not have been inserted at all, or if they were, dispatched in half a dozen words; while a few lines are thought quite enough for others, who exercised an undoubted influence over the world. This is the most contemptible biographical collection in any modern language; yet it is the only one we have in our current English literature. Of a far higher character is the *Biographie Universelle*, (52 vols. octavo, with Supplement extending to 8 vols.) This is certainly the most complete body of general biography that has appeared in any language; its authors are, for the most part, men of distinguished reputation, and as they have signed their initials to the articles contributed by them, they have been naturally anxious to fulfil their task in the most creditable manner possible. But it has many defects. In the first place, it is very unequally executed; in the second, we have frequently a very brief notice where we ought to have a long one; or, perhaps, we have no notice at all. In the third place, "English literature, though more amply treated than had been usual on the Continent, and with the benefit of Mr. Chalmers's contemporaneous volumes, is still not fully appreciated; our chief theological writers, especially, are passed over almost in silence." Mr. Hallam might have added, and so are most of our illustrious men. And, fourthly, he might also have observed, that the Italians have as much reason to complain as the English. In the Italian translation of that great work, '*Biografia Universale, Antica e Moderna*,' (Venice, 1824, &c.) the Italian lives have been so defective or erroneous, as to require re-writing. In fact, this version of the book is in many other respects superior to the French original. If the intestine troubles of the Spaniards would permit them also to undertake a translation, they would find it equally necessary to recompose that portion of the lives relating to the Peninsula and the New World.

The fault of all these general histories of literature and general biographies is, that they aim at too much, and that justice, or anything approaching to justice, cannot possibly be done to

any one subject. It might, however, be expected that the literary histories and biographies of particular nations would be well done. But this has seldom been the case. The well-known work of the Jesuit, Tiraboschi, ('Storia della Letteratura Italiana,') is worthy of all praise. His erudition is vast; and his criticisms are founded on nature and truth. This is, in fact, by far the best literary history of any country yet completed. That by Giuguené cannot, in original merit, be compared with it; for, in reality, it is based on that of the learned Jesuit; and if its criticisms be more just, its research is infinitely less. No doubt the monks of St. Maur, in their 'Histoire Littéraire de la France,' have executed their task better so far as they have conducted it,—viz. down to the twelfth century; but the continuators of that stupendous undertaking have not the learning, the research, the diligence, the devotedness, of their gigantic predecessors; in fact, we may doubt whether the aggregate members of the Institute have the erudition of one of those monastic fathers—of a Bouquet, a Brial, a Martene, a Mabillon, or a Tiraboschi. The Mohedanos (also monks), who commenced their Literary History of Spain, promised to execute their task in a noble manner; but the difficulties they encountered, and the abrupt termination of their labours, are melancholy facts, sufficient to damp the ardour of future students. Melancholy, indeed, is that condition of society, which not only will not reward, but will not save against heavy pecuniary loss, the authors of works designed to confer lasting benefits on the country; which receives with the coldest indifference, overtures that, if executed, would give splendour at once to the people and the age! But, if the Mohedanos were stopped short almost at the commencement of their career, Spain, as all scholars know,—though their knowledge is rather, we suspect, of the author than of the book—has a national literary history, the Bibliotheca Hispana, of Nicolas Antonio, since so much augmented by Bayer. If, however, this work contains an abundance of names, the individual notices are so meagre, as to resemble a catalogue raisonné rather than a literary history. Still it is better than our unwieldy, uncritical, repulsive, and every way contemptible Biographia Britannica,—a work most disgraceful to us—the more so, as no attempts have been made to improve it, or rather to compose a new one on entirely different principles. We have the consolation, such as it is, of being far behind the most illiterate nation in Europe, in respect to a national biography, especially a literary biography. Germany we need scarcely observe, has several literary historians; Denmark and Sweden have three; Portugal has one; Russia has one; and the very worst of all is superior to anything we have in England.

The sources for a general history of literature are much more copious than Mr. Hallam seems to suspect. Not only each of the countries we have mentioned, but many of the provinces in each country, have their distinct historian. Thus Valencia and Arragon, Catalonia and Castile, Naples and Sicily, Venice and Tuscany, the Milanese and the Ecclesiastical States, have their literary champions: so also have most of the German States,—even Hanover. Nor is this all—many religious orders have their peculiar biographers and critics; from Trithemius down to the last literary historian of the Jesuits. Unfortunately, they are uncommon, and are seldom to be met with at our public sales. They are, however, to be found in a few of our public libraries, and abundantly in those of Paris. If they have been less consulted than they ought to have been by all our biographical critics, the reason is obvious enough: the public, as the booksellers and the writers well knew, would be

satisfied with a production of much less research, of much less merit; and why incur unnecessary trouble and expense? In this lies the secret of our literary degradation.

To these sources might be added the historians of particular branches of literature, science, and art. Thus in philosophy, we have Stanley and Brucker, Tennemann and Cousin; in poetry, Bouterwek and Crescimbeni; in jurisprudence and the ecclesiastical sciences, a host of writers, so large as to set enumeration at defiance. As in the case of the general biographers, however, by far the best works are directed to some branch of literature and science in some particular country: we may instance Raynouard for the poetry of the Troubadours; Sanchez for the ancient poetry of Castile; Warton for the poetry of England; the Dano-Icelandic Society for that of the North, &c. It is manifest, therefore, that the materials for a literary history are amazingly ample, and that he who sits down in these days to such a task, will have to do little more than to select, to arrange, to combine.

In another paper, we shall examine in what degree Mr. Hallam has been able to avail himself of this advantage.

The Humorist (New Monthly Magazine). Colburn.

Mr. Hook was decidedly right when he advised Mr. Colburn to incorporate *The Humorist* with *The New Monthly*—but how could he reconcile it to his honour and conscience, to swamp the editor!—the great unknown—"one of the most distinguished writers of the day," as stated in the advertisements. At first, we were inclined to believe that it was a clear case for a "crown-er's quest," and feared that it might not turn out "*se offendendo*"—but, on reading the announcements more attentively, it appeared that "the most distinguished" was to be "assisted" by Mr. Theodore Hook himself. Here, then, we were again at fault; and we must, after all our anxious consideration, leave this interesting mystery, like other of Mr. Colburn's "state secrets," to be added to *The Man in the Iron Mask*, *The Eikon Basilike*, *Junius's Letters*, &c., for the torment of posterity; and confine ourselves to *The Humorist* as it is—and very good it is—though how distinguishable from *The New Monthly* we are at a loss to discover; and, indeed, one of the reasons assigned for the junction is, that "the contributors to both were the same." It might, perhaps, be well to anticipate coming events, and in our notice to merge the one in the other, and thus do justice to Mr. Hook's editorship, and an admirable first number (of *The New Monthly*)—but it may be thought more respectful to treat *The Humorist* as a substantive work. Here, then, is a specimen of its quality, in an opening 'Apostrophe to Christmas.'

"—Now hoary-headed Winter, like a shivering pauper, with a freeze coat and a hurricane in hand, walks abroad.—Ladies, young and old, appear, like the Hartz mountains, covered with furs.—The grateful perfume of roasting pippins fills the frosty air, some singing and others hissing, as is the wont in most musical meetings.—The fields are glistening with snow, awaiting, like sheep, the coming of Spring, to shear them of their fleecy covering.—Now little charity-boys, in leather very-smalls, run about presenting their pieces to the admirers of calligraphy; and Cockneys leave their counters, to present their pieces at little birds.—The fishmonger's lad leaves his basket upon the banks of the Serpentine, and exerts his muscles in propelling a solitary skate.—Eaves-dropping is at an end! the drip being congealed to a fringe of icicles.—George Barnwell is performed at the theatres, to teach apprentices that, when they are in want of money, they must go to their 'uncles'.—Cooks are up early, and plums suffer the martyrdom of Saint Stephen: and all show their

politics by cutting up—*peel*.—Greengrocers become barbarous; for after cruelly cropping the hollies for the holidays, and mistletoes, they—take their leave.—Snow-balls and fancy-balls are to be met with in every quarter of the town.—Young bucks and old horses appear in rough coats; and the coaches are laden with turkeys and game, that they seem as if they had all been through the *Poultry*, and run foul of each other.—Urchins from school come driven home, huddled together, like so many rams in a market-cart, with their horns sticking out on both sides.—Country-dances are all the vogue, from the ball-room down to the twelve-foot square parlour; and, like sailors in a storm, it's 'all hands to the pumps' with the shoemakers."

Then follow contributions from Mr. Leigh Hunt, James and Horace Smith, Mr. Buckstone; from whose 'Songs of the Blacks' we shall take a few verses:—

Nigger man good reason hab
For eberry ting he doing,
Wedder it be work all day,
Or eberry night go wooing.
He dearly lub a pretty gal,
Wid kiss her mouth to stop-a;
But nigger lub himself the best—
'Cause he tink it proper.
Chorus—Ching-ring—bango, &c.

Times keep growing berry bad—
Through care or Massa Cupid;
Some kill demselves a'cause 'em mad,
And some a'cause 'em stupid.
* * *

He nebbet care for making love,
Dat trouble never move him,
Nigger man wid handsome face
Make eberry body love him.
* * *

He no like at all to cry,
Sorrow make all crusty;
He tink it best to laugh all day,
A'cause it make him lusty.
Nigger lub good living well,
Starvation make him frightful;
He like rump-steaks and oyster-sauca—
'Cause 'em so delightful.
Chorus—Ching-ring—bango, &c.

He'd like to be a gentleman,
If he could live unbind;
Nigger man no like to work—
'Cause it make him tired;
He tink it bore his debts to pay,
Though folk may say it not right,
A'cause for tree months in de Bench
Black man come out all wash white.
Chorus—Ching-ring—bango, &c.

The 'Theatre Royal, Little Piddington,' is one of Poole's very best papers, and revives all our early love of the dear place. Nothing can exceed the magnificence of promise (see play bill), the misery of performance, or the perplexities of the manager. The true patrons of the drama, of course all write for orders, and by way of compensating set-off, the manager obligingly puts all his friends on the free list, and suspends the free list for the whole season, under the usual pretence of "unprecedented success." But the whims, the extravagancies, the fractious pettish jealousies of the actors and actresses, are most laughably brought out—here enters the first tragedian:—

"Mr. Strut," said the tragedian, in an angry tone, 'I have a complaint to make—two complaints in short, Sir, I have many complaints to make. In the first place, Sir, look at this hatchet.'

"Strut. Well, Sir: what's the matter with it?"
"Snoxell. Matter, Sir! Do you expect that I should go on at night with such a thing as this for a hatchet?"

"Strut. Why, really, Snoxell, it seems to me that the property is remarkably well made."

"Snoxell. Well made! well made! See this Sir. (Pointing to a play-bill.) You have made a line of it in your bills. The public will expect something. One little dab of red ochre—one paltry, small tuft of horse-hair glued to it! Why, Sir, I won't be seen by the third row in the pit."

"Strut. Rely on it, my dear Snoxell, it will all exceedingly well at night."

"Snoxell. Very well, Sir; I have only this to say I have a reputation at stake in Little Piddington and I will—not go on at night with such a thing as this for a hatchet."

"Strut. Sit down for a minute, Snoxel; we'll see about it.

"Mr. Strut rang the bell, and desired Stumps to send Squeaks, the property-man, to him. Squeaks—a little man, with a voice like that of Punch in a show-box—speedily appeared.

"Strut. Come here, you scoundrel. Is this a property fit to be given to such a person as Mr. Snoxel?"

"Squeaks. Why, Sir, I made it agreeable to the order I got from Mr. Siffle, Sir, the prompter, Sir.

"Strut. And what was his order, you rascal?"

"Squeaks. Why, Sir, he ordered me to make the identical blood-stained 'atchet, Sir, with a lock of the victim's 'air sticking to it, Sir, with which the murder was committed, Sir. And there's the blood, Sir, and there's the 'air, Sir, and that's all I can say about it, Sir.

"Strut. Get along, you little villain, and put more red paint, and another tuft or two of horse-hair to it.

"Squeaks. Very well, Sir; if you please, Sir. But I can only say, Sir, that 'ere property, Sir, will come to near ninnence as it is, Sir."

After this fashion the manager runs through the whole company, or rather the whole company run through the manager, until at last—

"The manager was cut short in the middle of a deep sigh by the entrance of Stumps.

"Stumps. The gentleman who sent the new tragedy the other day, Sir, wishes to see you. He will be glad of your answer about it.

"Strut. Busy—can't see him;—no answer, at present,—must come some other time.

"Stumps. Yes, Sir. And Mr. Bray, Sir, the man that belongs to the donkey, is here.

"Strut. The donkey-man! Why didn't you show him in instantly? Admit him. O, here he is. Bray, my dear fellow, how d'ye do? Devilish glad to see you. Take a seat. Well, how did your donkey get on at rehearsal: d'ye think he'll do?"

"Bray. Do! Why, Master Tim, I wish some of the humane donkeys in your company would act their parts as well as my donkey will act his'n. Sew'd up in the hide, too, he looks a 'nation sight more like a cow than many of t'others will look what they've got to represent. To be sure, he set off a-braying in high style in the principal scene; but that's natural enough, you know: even a donkey, when he gets upon the stage, likes to have a bit of gag of his own. Hows'ever, that won't do at night, so I'll muzzle him, 'cause it ain't in the nature of a cow to bray, you know; and in this theatre natur' goes afore all. * * And the Little Pedlingtonians are deep enough to know that a real cow, as you've advertised him, would never think of doing that.

"Strut. That's true. Now, as to terms, I believe we understand each other. Two shillings a week for the use of him.

"Bray. That's to say, I let him out to play for three nights a-week, at two shillings.

"Strut. Three nights! Nonsense! there was no such limitation understood.

"Bray. Don't care. Mine's the principal donkey in the piece, 'cause he's the only one; and he shan't injure his constitution by playing more than three nights a-week unless he's paid extra for it, just the same as the principal actors of your own. Come—fourpence for each night additional, or I goes directly and rips him out of the hide and takes him home; and if I takes away my donkey, what'll you do for a cow?"

"Strut. Well; if I must, I must. Agreed.

"Bray. Now, then; what am I to be paid?"

"Strut. You! For what?"

"Bray. Why, master Tim, you've engaged my donkey, but you haven't engaged me to drive him; ha! ha! ha! and he'll be of no use if you don't. My donkey's as obstinate as a mule, and nobody but me can manage him: and I can't think of taking a less salary than his'n. Ha! ha! ha! You see I have you there. No use to talk; he won't move a peg if I ain't with him.

"Strut. Then I must say, this is the most unblushing piece of—

"Bray. Stuff and nonsense, Tim; it's all fair in a Theatre, you know. Besides, you can't do without that hanimal in the piece no more than any of the others; so pay me you must."

The account of the grand Kentucky Balloon is good—the moral of Mr. Jerrold's tale excellent—and there is a joyous spirit in 'Thirty-six and Thirty-seven,' that tempts us to join in the chorus.

Old Time was taking his rounds last night,
As is ever his wont to do,
To see that the old year's dead outright,
'Ere he turns his glass for the new:
The old Man paused in his silent rout,
When to Marlborough Street he got,
"And people," he said, "there live hereabout,
If my memory cheat me not,
Who never yet would the old year let
Pass quietly up to Heaven;
They were tipsy in Thirty-six—I'll bet
They're not sober in Thirty-seven!"

He stopp'd when he came to the corner door,
And he listen'd there a minute,
And, "Well," he said, as he heard the roar
Of the laugh and song within it;
"Where Horace, and Poole, and Crowquill were,
There was little chance of quiet,
But now they have got that Gurney there,
We shall have a precious riot!"
But still they sang, till the echoes rang,
"The chance on Life's dice is even,
But the bowls we mix, in Thirty-six,
May we mingle in Thirty-seven!"

Just then a blue coat who chanced to pass
In charge of a noisy Paddy,
Perceived Old Time with his scythe and glass,
And "Hearkee!" he said, "good daddy!
Take a friend's advice,—leave them all alone,
For you're only cracking your bellows,
And you might as well whistle to this flag-stone
As to any of them 'ere fellows:
One Gurney's there, in the president's chair,
And they'd heed not a voice from Heaven,
For in Thirty-six though their fun was rare,
'Twill be rarer in Thirty-seven!"

Of *The Humorist*, our readers can now perhaps form a judgment—but it ought to be considered as a part only of *The New Monthly*—and so considered, the first number of *The New Monthly*, under the editorship of Mr. Hook, is capital, and full of "golden promises."

Essay on the Birds of Aristophanes.—Essay on the Clouds of Aristophanes. By J. W. Suv-
vern. Translated by W. R. Hamilton, F.R.S.
Murray.

The Knights of Aristophanes; with Notes, critical and explanatory. By T. Mitchell, A.M.
Murray.

The Comedies of Aristophanes. Translated by B. D. Walsh, M.A. Bailly.

SCHOLARS can no longer complain of the neglect into which the writings of "the truly great old man," as Aristophanes is fondly called by Persius, were permitted to fall after the days of Chrysostom. The enthusiasm of the worthy bishop, who never slept without the Comedies and the New Testament beneath his pillow, is surpassed by the moderns, who find in his works, not merely the best specimens of Attic style, but the most important lessons in political science. Many causes may be assigned for this revival of his popularity: during the age of Aristophanes every question that can interest a free people was mooted at Athens, and the type of every party that can exist in a constitutional state may be found. The Athenian Republic, during the Peloponnesian war, held the same relation to Greece that England does to Europe;—it was the head of its commerce, and the heart of its freedom:—a slight derangement of its functions was felt to the remotest extremity. Aristophanes discusses questions of general concernment, not in the sober narrative of a historian, or the cold abstractions of the philosopher, but in the actual representation of life; he brings before us the public contests, the domestic scandals, the keen encounter of wit, and the bitterness of satire, which political parties, in modern times, spread over the pages of their pamphlets, or the columns of their newspapers, but which he concentrates in some poetic fiction, whose plot, like the folly of Jaques, is used merely "as a stalking-horse,

under the presentation of which he shoots his wit." In estimating the value of these specimens of the Old Comedy, we must remember that they resemble the comedies of modern times only in their name and their dramatic form. The Aristophanic drama is a strange mixture of the pamphlet, the newspaper, the magazine, and the review; its author's object is more usually the immediate triumph of party than the permanent establishment of principle.

An abatement must be made in the value of the political lessons deduced from these dramas, arising from the nature of the compositions; a still greater diminution results from a consideration of the age and people they describe. Sad confusion has been occasioned by the supposition that ancients and moderns had the same notion of a free state; and hence arguments drawn from the abuses of aristocracy and democracy in the Grecian republics have been applied at random to the political discussions of our own times. A few words will explain the distinction: freedom, among the ancients, consisted in a direct share in the administration; with the moderns, it means the maintenance of individual rights. Security of person and property was not the direct object of the Athenian constitution; on the contrary, it was held, that persons and properties existed only for the state. The aphorism that "private rights must yield to public convenience," which is now the exception, was then the rule; and, as there was no distinction between the executive and the legislative functions of government, the determination of what was, and what was not, public convenience, produced results of very injurious consequence. The Athenians were not so much a free people as a king people—a combination only possible where a republic is limited to a single city or a narrow district. In such a state the phrase "tyrannical majority" must frequently have had a fearful meaning; the acts of an irresponsible multitude, like those of any other irresponsible sovereignty, must have been frequently arbitrary, and sometimes ludicrous. But such acts are no more arguments against democracy generally, than the crimes and follies of Nero are against the existence of a monarchy.

The Comedy of the Knights appears to have been designed by Aristophanes as a formal attack on the Athenian popular party, and especially its leader, Cleon. Mr. Mitchell views it as the indictment of all democracies and all demagogues since the Flood. The plot may be told in a few words. The Athenian populace, personified as an old man Demus, just as the English nation is typified by John Bull, has lately taken a new slave, Cleon, into his confidence; the favourite robs his master, bullies his fellow-servants, and tyrannizes over the household; two of the slaves learn that Cleon can be conquered only by a greater scoundrel than himself, and such they discover in a manufacturer of black-puddings, who gains the victory over Cleon. Demus now discovers how grossly he has been deceived; the obnoxious favourite is dismissed, and tranquillity restored. To us, the principal value of the piece consists in the lively portraiture of the king-people. Demus is thus described by Demosthenes:—

We two slaves have got
A violent, bean-eating, touchy master—
Our Father Demus of St. Pnyx's parish—
A cross old man, and somewhat hard of hearing.
On the first instant, this good gentleman
Purchased a slave, a Magabean currier;
And a most cunning, slanderous rogue he is;
When this vile Magabean had found out
The old man's ways, he cringed before his master,
And fawned, and soothed, and flattered, and cajoled him.

‡ The Athenians voted at elections by beans.

§ Pnyx was the usual place of assembly for the Athenian citizens.

¶ Cleon was a leather-dresser; the commentators have not discovered why he was nick-named a Magabean.

Mr. Mitchell, in a long note, attempts to prove that Cleon's conduct, as here portrayed, is the necessary result of the spirit of democracy. It is, however, a far more general portraiture—the picture of the plans of a minister under an irresponsible government, and applicable to such favourites as Sejanus or Wolsey, as well as to the demagogue.

But it is of some importance to inquire whether Cleon was altogether so worthless a character as he is represented by his adversary. He was undoubtedly a bold, bad man, but assuredly he was not destitute of talent. The incident in his life which Aristophanes has chosen as the chief point of attack, his capture of the Spartans at Pylus, and thus wresting to himself the credit of the former operations of Demosthenes, was assuredly a proof of great abilities. And the general course of his foreign policy deserves at least the praise of vigour; the worst crime that can be laid to his charge is his conduct to the colonies, and parallels for this may be found in the history of modern monarchies.

Demus is represented as the slave of superstition; it is an oracle that informs Nicias and Demosthenes by what means their oppressor may be removed. The scroll is humorously translated by Mr. Walsh:—

Soon as the eagle of Hides
His crooked-lipped jawbones shall wag on
Th' innocent speckled sides
Of the wise-acre blood-drinking dragon,
Then, by commandment divine,
To hell gains speedily conveyance
All the begarlicked brine
Of the spitefully sharp Magabazans;
And to the vendors of tripe
The gods give glory, and sudden
Honours, if they are ripe
For leaving off selling black-pudding.

Here and elsewhere Aristophanes declares that his chief ground of hostility to Cleon was the meanness of his origin. Assuredly, a man must be at a loss for complaint against a political adversary, when his father's having kept a tan-yard is the head and front of the offences urged against him. Yet Mr. Mitchell regards this argument, if such it can be called, as a proof of profound policy, and seriously believes that the contest between the tanner and the imaginary black-pudding seller is a fair example of the contests in popular states, and a proof that in such strife for power the greatest rogue will prevail.

The scolding match between Cleon and his rival is a rich specimen of Athenian slang, but assuredly it is not a fair representation of popular oratory. The speeches of Demosthenes and Æschines, indeed, contain abundant proof that the Athenians too frequently garnished their eloquence with the flowers of Billingsgate; but that an audience so refined as that which assembled in the Pnyx, could have endured a mere tissue of vulgarity and ribaldry, is perfectly incredible. Of this we may quote, as an evidence, Aristophanes himself. In his *Parabasis*, or address to the audience, he imputes his delay in bringing forward this comedy to his dread of their fastidious taste. The passage is thus translated by Mr. Mitchell:—

I Twas no folly bred, we say, this distrust and cold delay,
But a sense of th' extreme apathy, (Muss.)
And the toil which he who woos, in our town, the Comic
must encounter in such his vocation.
Suitors many (and brisk sparks), as our poet oft remarks,
pay her court and profoundest attention;
But of all that love and burn, very few meet due return,—
this observance first bred apprehension.

Demus himself, when introduced on the stage, shows no trait of character that has not been mentioned by Demosthenes. The contest between Cleon and his rival is renewed in his presence; and, after it is decided, the black-pudding seller enumerates all the evils of the state. These, however, have no essential connexion with the form of the government, but are simply the hackneyed topics of abuse urged against every party in power.

Our examination of this "dramatic philippic" has led us to the conclusion that Aristophanes is innocent of the general political inferences deduced from it by his commentators, that it was a party production for a temporary purpose; and that the old bard would be greatly astonished at the use made of it in modern times.

Süvern has done much for illustrating the true merits of these comedies,—the light they throw on Grecian history and Athenian manners, by investigating the times and circumstances under which they appeared. His *Essay on the Birds* is particularly valuable, from the new views of the political and social condition of Athens just before the sailing of the Athenian expedition, which it develops. We are not so much pleased with the *Essay on the Clouds*; the author has missed some of the prominent parts in the character of Socrates, which rendered him a legitimate object of satire; and no theory is more untenable than the identity of the clownish Strepsiades with so refined a statesman as Pericles.

Mr. Walsh's translation has the rare merit of adhering closely to the original, without greatly sacrificing the spirit to the letter. He has rendered most of the choral odes very felicitously, especially the well-known address of the Clouds.

We have more than once borne willing testimony to the taste, talent, and learning displayed in Mr. Mitchell's commentary, and have at the same time protested against his treating political satires as just representations. He is more moderate in this volume than in the two preceding, but he still maintains the parallelism between the struggles of ancient and modern parties, and still quotes Aristophanes, avowedly a fierce partisan, as an authority above suspicion. We think that he thus injures his favourite author, by diverting attention from his true claims to public favour: he deserves to be admired as a poet, a wit, a humorist, and a powerful wielder of the scourge of satire; but as a political guide, his views were too limited, and his objects too temporary, to entitle him to attention.

An Investigation of the Constitutions of Free Nations.—[*Etudes sur les Constitutions des Peuples libres*]. By J. C. L. Simonde de Sismondi. Paris, and London, Bossange & Co.

Bacon, in classifying the species of errors to which humanity is liable in its reasonings, (*Novum Organum*), distinguishes between what he calls the *idola specus* (in modern nomenclature, individual idiosyncrasies), and the *idola tribus*, or the errors of the age and country in which that individual lives. With reference to this distinction, small societies assume, in the eyes of the world, the character of individuals; and opinions, which, within their own bosom, are acknowledged to be really *idola tribus*, when viewed from the distance have very much the air and appearance of *idola specus*. This remark applies very closely to Geneva and its literature. The productions emanating from that city occupy a large space in the eyes of Europe, and rank high for their merit; but they are not less remarkable for the unity of their spirit, for a pervading family likeness, which may justly be placed to the account of local idiosyncrasy. One is almost tempted to imagine that Byron had this peculiarity in his mind, and was thinking of Bacon's figure of the *specus*, when he called Geneva a *caverne d'honnêtes gens*. The literature and philosophy of the place are perfectly described by this phrase, for, while honesty, singleness of heart, and philanthropy, are their characteristics—while whatever proceeds from that quarter is marked by elevation of thought and integrity of purpose, all is, at the

same time, (as far, at least, as the moral sciences are concerned,) ideal, theoretical, and abstract,—more conversant with the forms of logic than with the substance of experience—more illustrated by ideas than by sensations, by words than by things. This is an unavoidable consequence of the isolated position of the inhabitants; and the same cause produces the same consequences in the small cities and universities of Germany, and wherever else literature and science take up their abode apart from the haunts of worldlings, and from the busy centres of social action.

Of these characteristics the works of Sismondi in general largely partake; and, had the present publication been given anonymously to the world, there would have been little hesitation in assigning it to Geneva, or to Geneva's now most illustrious citizen. In saying, however, that this work is ideal and abstract, we must not be understood as affirming that it is without reference to the experience of the past, or to the still more striking phenomena of the present age. On the contrary, Mons. Sismondi has enriched his volume from the immense stores of his historical research, and has given many admirable portraits of the particular phases of modern political combinations. But the facts thus brought into evidence are seen through the prism of books, and the deductions that are drawn from them are derived through the unworn purity of the author's heart and the abstracting quality of his intelligence, with less reference to the rough common sense and working-day experience of mankind than is desirable for the attainment of practical and applicable truth. The title of the work would lead to the supposition that it is an analytical history of the constitutions of such nations as have broken through the trammels of despotism; and, as perhaps, after a fashion, it may be. But, to describe the work more accurately, we should say, that it is a development and illustration of one leading idea, namely, the distinction between public opinion and the sense of the nation. Public opinion, according to the author, is the opinion of the day, entertained by the majority counted by the head; the national sense is the opinion of the wisest and the best, confirmed by time, and disseminated, from the select few, among the mass, by the progress of discussion. "But a nation (says our author), to be well and happily governed, must be guided by the national sense, and not by public opinion; for national sense embodies the maximum intelligence of the people: public opinion is an expression only of its mediocrities." From this conclusion the reader is led to infer, that universal suffrage is not a legitimate right, because it could only be exercised by the many at the expense of the whole; or (to translate the matter in a sense which is, perhaps, peculiarly our own) it is not a right, because it is not a natural power to the ignorant and unthinking, but rather a source of weakness and infirmity.

On the other hand, the author, whose mind is of the most liberal cast, is equally impressed with the truth, that a class which is not represented, whose opinion is not consulted on the management of affairs, will infallibly be oppressed; and that the most ignorant and poor require to be protected in the freedom of their persons, and the reward of their labour, more perhaps than the rich and the educated. The problem, then, which Mons. Sismondi seeks to solve, is the discovery of a political combination which shall ensure this requisite protection of the many, without giving into their possession a preponderating power in the state, which they are incapable of wielding.

† Dumont, the friend and expositor of Bentham, was less a citizen of Geneva than of Paris and London.

This not with it could in any but, if would in and a to before in the pianism- own good suppositi connecte many th cation, w bating o Althoug mostly g the exper other wa would of ginning trusted to of all fre from thei which tendenci through eventual On the as the a norant cl mination of their better fit "maximu use, but i In the is not a acquirem of purpos in the go are rarely a proper of popula may acqu titude, and be "sure same evil however, deficient. a powerfu claim; for universal does not o is force of required; man that i may be ne but, in the and effici purposes, lace, is e measures, levers is him into fore, the y appearance his interv the popula may confie experience popular co of universi and other question o wisdom and it cannot b mistakes o and accident whatever t systematic.

This train of reasoning, it must be admitted, is not without a certain proportion of truth; and it could not be wholly disregarded, with safety, in any attempt to construct a new constitution; but, if pushed to its logical consequences, it would infallibly lead to a government of castes, and a total prostration of the industrial classes before some species of oligarchy. The defect in the reasoning is sufficiently plain—it is Utopianism—it is the transference of the author's own good feelings to the general mass—the supposition that wisdom and virtue are always connected, and that, in opposing to the ignorant many the notabilities of wealth, rank, and education, we are doing something more than combating one species of prejudice by another.

Although in Geneva the wise men may be mostly good, if all the good men are not wise, the experience of the world at large lies the other way. The notabilities, which Sismondi would oppose to the many, have, from the beginning of the world, so abused the powers intrusted to them by the state, that the specific end of all free governments is to protect the many from their prepotency. The various aristocracies which the world has witnessed, however their tendencies have, for a time, been suspended through some modifying influence, have all eventually terminated in tyranny.

On the other hand, it is not absolutely true, as the author too evidently fears, that the ignorant classes are so wholly deficient in discrimination as necessarily to choose representatives of their own ignorance, rather than persons better fitted for the purposes of legislation. The "maximum of intelligence" is a phrase of ready use, but in politics there is no such abstraction. In the ordinary circumstances of society, it is not a great elevation of mind, or extensive acquirements, so much as a direct honesty of purpose and plain sense, that are required in the government of affairs; and the people are rarely deficient in the tact necessary for a proper choice of representatives. In times of popular excitement, it is true, demagogues may acquire an undue influence with the multitude, and he "who peppers the highest" will be "surest to please." But does not the same evil occur in aristocracies? Even here, however, the instincts of society are not wholly deficient. Times of excitement are times when a powerful opposition is made to some reasonable claim; for no excitement of the people can be universal and permanent where some oppression does not operate. Under these circumstances it is force of will, rather than force of head, that is required; and the demagogue is precisely the man that is wanted. Abstractedly speaking, he may be neither the wisest nor the most virtuous, but, in the contingency, he is the most useful and efficient. If the demagogue, for his own purposes, or in obedience to the will of the populace, is enabled to carry unjust or ruinous measures, the fulcrum on which he places his levers is the preliminary injustice which called him into notice and activity. It is not, therefore, the people who are answerable for his appearance, but they whose abuses called forth his intervention. Admitting, however, that the popular choice is sometimes defective, we may confidently appeal to our own domestic experience, and oppose the results of our great popular constituencies against the nominations of universities, close counties, rotten boroughs, and other select franchises. There can be no question on which side the balance of political wisdom and virtue will be found; and moreover, it cannot be overlooked, that whereas the worst mistakes of popular elections are temporary and accidental, the abuses of close aristocracies, whatever their foundations, are permanent and systematic.

In the foregoing observations we beg not to be understood as advocating universal suffrage, or as battling for the naked truism, that all the members of a state have an equal right to be represented. Every one must admit, that each individual, being alike dependent upon good government for his happiness, has an equal right to be consulted, *provided it be necessary to the end*. If it be not necessary, the right would practically fall into abeyance, but if it were mischievous, it is then no right at all, but an imposition. The question, then, is a question not of abstract reason, but of fact. In a wise and good community (if such a datum be admissible) universal suffrage would be perfectly safe, but unnecessary. In a state of absolute corruption, universal suffrage might be perfectly necessary, but it would still be insufficient to the purposes of good government. The extent of popular franchise, therefore, which may be necessary to insure good government, must vary with the moral and intellectual condition of the people. This, indeed, is the consequence which Sismondi himself deduces from the argument. His theory is, that every man has not a right to his vote, but that every man has a right to good government. The error in his reasoning seems to be in the presumption, that in no case could the labouring classes acquire such a degree of information as would enable them to choose—not M. Sismondi's abstract wisdom and virtue, but—men having a sufficient education, moral and intellectual, to carry on the business of legislation. The fact is, as we have said, directly otherwise. The masses are not deficient in docility, and are but too apt to sacrifice their own natural feeling and intelligence to the opinion of those whom they consider their superiors; and if they go wrong in their elections, it is more frequently from their credulity than their presumption. Taken as it stands in the volume before us, the argument involves a vicious circle: Every man is not fit to vote; therefore, if every man votes, the government goes to pieces. But every man who does not vote is liable to be oppressed; therefore the masses must be oppressed in order that government may subsist. This is pure absolutism, and this is not what such a man as Sismondi could really mean.

Accordingly, he goes on to seek a temperance in the theory of balanced powers, and (jumping over his original proposition of the oppression of the non-represented,) proceeds to argue for an aristocracy of electors, and also for such an arrangement of the electoral powers as would give a real and practical supremacy to what, by courtesy, are called the better classes. Then, again, comes the overlooked assumption that the better classes have no corrupt interests, and the one-sided view, that there is no danger from the preponderancy of any power in the state but that of the people.

The fact is, that the author has fallen into a mistake very common among the good, the moderate, and the timid, who, having witnessed the outbreak of the people of Europe, after centuries of ignorance and of oppression, have taken alarm because a generation which had been corrupted and debased by vicious institutions, committed terrible crimes, and proved themselves unequal to the task of reconstituting themselves in a moment. Such observers have witnessed what they called the failure of popular attempts at reform, and they rush blindfold into the arms of despotism, to save the nation from itself. This is a downright defect of moral courage; they would indeed have good government, but they will not consent to pay its price. It is the curse of bad government, that its influence survives its existence, that it narrows the intellects, and depraves the heart of its victims, for generations

after it has ceased to be. Certes, if philosophy could obtain the control of events, it would begin by reforming ancient despotisms, by giving the masses a political education, before it intrusted them with political power: but, unfortunately, the world is so constituted, that political education is wholly practical; and that to understand the duties of a citizen, the pupil must exercise them. Besides, "while the grass grows—the proverb's something musty." Benevolent despotisms, such as Prussia, even if they were not black swans, will not make citizens of subjects; they will not manufacture the slave into the man. But oppressors do not thus voluntarily surrender their power; and when revolutions become inevitable, the people cannot wait for education, but must act after their condition, and blunder on from experiment to experiment,—not till they arrive at a theoretically perfect constitution, but till they have learned to work an imperfect one well, and gradually to mould it into form.

That a misplaced timidity is at the bottom of Sismondi's reasoning, he himself sets forth in a somewhat exaggerated portraiture of the fate of the several constitutional governments of Europe. The republics of Italy and Germany have fallen—the royal republic of Poland is no more—Holland has a king,—and Switzerland is in imminent jeopardy. In England, says M. Sismondi, reform has only developed faction and passion. In France, the revolution of 1830 is a retrogradation. In Germany the charters of the small monarchies are waste paper. In Portugal and Spain, revolution has established anarchy and civil war. In Spanish America the affair is still worse; while in the United States, liberty has ended (?) in Lynch law.

This, if it were faithful, would be a deplorable picture, but no basis for a general argument. If the failure of revolutions flows from the insufficiency of the democratic principle to ensure order and happiness, the revolutions themselves flow from an equal insufficiency on the part of absolute governments. The latter proposition, however, is self-evident; the former is less easy to prove. It is a fallacy to group under one head, of constitutional government, all the various constitutions enumerated by Sismondi, and to argue from that nomenclature to a general result. Poland sunk beneath the *liberum veto*, or aristocracy run mad. The French constitution of 1789 was of a totally different character, and failed for a different cause. The Swiss federation is a combination differing from both, and is attacked by dangers peculiarly its own. In England the electoral basis is wide; in France, as at present constituted, narrow: but both countries, according to our author, are going to the dogs. What is there common in these constitutions and their results, that they are to be grouped together for the purposes of reasoning?

Then again, what have these republics and their end, in common with the case of the United States—a case which seems to have wholly frightened our author from his propriety? Those states, he says, "are rapidly advancing to a high material prosperity, yet are they perhaps a still greater cause of affliction to the friends of liberty than the rest. Everything, in fact, favours them: internal peace, unlimited territorial resources, high wages, ample employment for capital, the abolition of all ancient abuses, and the forgetfulness of all ancient party disputes. The people who multiply in these happy regions, by their English descent, inherit a well worked system of legislation, an administration adapted to their wants; they have all the wisdom and experience of an ancient race, with all the vigour of a new one, and with all the fruits of a high civilization. Still, of late years, every day the Americans make the friends of liberty blush. To the crime of permitting slavery, they have added the crime

of interdicting the education of the negroes, the crime of refusing to the free negro the necessary guarantees for his liberty, the crime of visiting with the popular vengeance all demonstrations of humanity or justice towards that unhappy race, the crime of having not once applied the public force to repress this violence. Every where else, circumstances may be blamed, if republicanism has not produced its promised fruits. In America, the results of democracy are in immediate presence of the institutions: if they are disgraceful, it is because the institutions are bad."

If ever there was a *non sequitur* on paper, it is in the last sentence; and the error is the more extraordinary, coming from a man so estimable as the writer. The object of free institutions is, that each man shall give effect to his wishes, not that those wishes should be either wise or good, for that depends on other causes. Experience indeed proves, that if free powers are not wisely wielded, they will soon escape from the popular grasp. Hence it is that wise nations endeavour so to regulate education, the distribution of wealth, habits, religion, and public spirit, that they shall aid institutions, and turn them to the purposes of happiness. But if these things be not so managed, there is no *à priori* power in institutions to force them into a better track. There is no power within the bosom of a people to make them wiser or better than they really are, because they must feel the want of a better order before they can attempt it. The fault of the Americans is, not that their institutions are bad, but that the people have refused to apply them to the negro race—it is, that by a plague spot in their social economy, they have reduced the natural morality below the level of the national constitution, and cannot exercise the powers they possess as wisely as is desirable. It is not that the executive is weak; for it is strong enough to enforce order, where the majority will that order shall exist; an executive can do more than this, can do evil. Such a government is despotic, absolute. In all this, however, much as there is cause for grief, for indignation, there is none for despair. The slavery is an accident, the freedom is the regular order of American association, and accidental forces always yield to the regular. If the physical evils of slave-holding do not get too strong a head, and place moral causes wholly *hors de combat*, the national feeling will be purged, and slavery obliterated. How long is it since public opinion in Great Britain on this point, was not much better than it now is in America?

But though the scope and tendency of the argument lies towards absolutism, Sismondi's principles will not bend to his reasoning, and he still labours to discover a point in which freedom is reconcilable with good government. In this however he fails. He shows in turn the mischiefs of different forms of government. He balances one evil by another; he states the *pours* and the *contres* with great fairness; but he arrives at no conclusion practically useful to a nation in the art of constituting its government; and for this plain reason, that the point is not ascertainable merely upon theoretical principles. The despotism of an ignorant multitude is an evil; and so is the despotism of the interested few. Both propositions are absolutely true; but in real life the terms are perpetually shifting: the balance between the interests of castes and factions, is constantly changing; the quantity of power which the people can wield, and without which their freedom is jeopardized, varies from day to day, and is not capable of being subjected to any fixed rules.

But if this were otherwise, if a perfect theorem of popular government could be assigned, applicable to all the possible conditions of a nation,

there exists no power in society capable of ensuring its application. The balance of political powers will ever follow the balance of material forces, in a state. We see this in our own history, which shows the development of popular liberty following, *pari passu*, the development of commercial activity. Aristocracy, which is almost inherently a territorial principle, yields to the pressure of other sources of moral and physical superiority; and the steam-engine and the power-loom are the two great "moving whys," that must decide on the future character of our government. The share, therefore, that the many shall have in the nomination of a popular chamber, depends on the power they actually possess of making their claims available, and upon their own estimate of their rights and necessities. If wisdom and virtue happen to reside in the same scale with force, all goes well. If the force is with a particular caste, and the reason with the people, the latter will not be less enslaved. If the force is with the people, and the reason with the upper classes, nothing will prevent a loose and anarchical government. The general condition of a nation, as to the distribution of its riches and education, its material necessities, its habits, manners, &c. is one complex fact, of which its government is the necessitated consequence. The true theory of the legislator lies in an accurate appreciation of the phenomena; and the object of political inquiry is not what ought to be, but what must happen, and what are the best means of discovering the maximum of good which can be made to flow from that necessity. The practical corollary is, not to defraud the labouring classes of the means of political self-defence, but to qualify them by education for their use. Briefly, then, our objection to this volume is, that it is conceived in apprehension, and is an expression of the alarm, rather than of the cool judgment, of the author; that the inquiry is conducted upon a basis less than philosophical, and excluding from consideration many elements necessary to a sound result; and lastly, and consequently, that it is inconclusive, leaving the liberal reader in a state of doubt, and of dejection of spirit, which is anything but favourable to the necessities of the times. We object to it, that being the work of one of the most enlightened and honest historians of the day, it may be converted to the worst purposes of despotism, by disturbing conscience, and abating self-confidence in that middle class of temperaments which holds the balance between the hot-heads of all parties. These are serious objections to the general scope and tendency of the work, but we shall show hereafter that it is deserving attention for the variety and importance of its illustrative details.

The Life of Oliver Goldsmith: from a variety of original sources. By James Prior.

[Second Notice.]

Our last notice brought Goldsmith to the starting-post of his London career: on his arrival in our vast and busy metropolis, like the greater number of literary aspirants, he was compelled for many years to maintain a hard and unequal strife for the very necessities of life—at one time, driven to the stratagem of concealing his real name, and applying for the place of classical teacher in a school—at another, seeking shelter with a chemist, "residing at the corner of Monument or Bell Yard, or Fish Street Hill," who, "taking compassion on his destitute condition, and pleased with the degree of chemical science he displayed, admitted him into his establishment;" again, if an after-confession of his own may be understood literally, sunk to the squalid companionship of the beggars of Axe Lane. Subsequently, by the kind assistance of

Dr. Sleigh and a few other acquaintances, he was enabled to establish himself as physician in Bankside, Southwark, but without much success. A more fortunate circumstance was, a casual introduction to the author of 'Clarissa Harlowe:' and from this time forward we read of literary schemes projected and in progress. We are told of a tragedy, which, upon some slight discouragement, was destroyed when little more than in embryo; and the mention of this is followed characteristically enough, by a wild dream of setting forth to decipher the inscriptions on the *written mountains*, "though he was altogether ignorant of Arabic, or the language in which they might be supposed to be written." In the next page of Mr. Prior's narrative is registered the first symptom of that passion for fine clothes, between which and a personal neglect equally extravagant, the imaginative seemingly vibrate: he was met by an acquaintance dressed in a tarnished suit of green and gold; and it was about this time that, according to Sir Joshua Reynolds, he obtained possession of a velvet coat, with a patch on its breast, which he was wont to conceal with his hat; "but this constant position becoming noticed, and the cause being soon known, occasioned no little merriment at his expense."

His patients, or his patience probably, soon deserted Goldsmith, for we find him, about the year 1756, acting as occasional assistant in the school of Dr. Milner, at Peckham. Here,

"He was considered to be, according to Miss Milner, what he scoffingly alludes to in his writings as one of his own negative qualifications, *very good-natured*; played tricks somewhat familiar, and occasionally a little coarse, upon the servants and boys; told very entertaining stories; and found frequent amusement in his flute. With the scholars he was a favourite, being ever ready to indulge them in certain, not very expensive indeed, school-boy dainties whenever his pecuniary means permitted; and he was not over-strict in that discipline which, however necessary to observe, a man of amiable disposition occasionally feels reluctant to enforce. His benevolent feelings appeared always active; mendicants rarely quitted him without relief; and a tale of distress roused all his sympathies. His small supplies were thus exhausted frequently before the stated salary became due, when Mrs. Milner would say to him with a smile, upon application for an advance,—"You had better, Mr. Goldsmith, let me take care of your money, as I do for some of the young gentlemen;" to which he would reply, in the same spirit of good-humour, "In truth, madam, there is equal need."

It is not surprising that with so much heart, and so little head, he should become a favourite as an equal and not as an overseer, among the schoolboys. The son of one of his pupils, Mr. Samuel Bishop, has furnished Mr. Prior with an anecdote which we cannot pass:—

"After an interval of some years, my father, while walking in London with my mother, to whom he was just married, met Goldsmith, and addressing him, an immediate recognition took place. The tutor was delighted to see his former pupil, and expressed great pleasure at the introduction to his wife. Still the associations in his mind of their former school connexion was too strong to be overcome. 'Come, my boy,' said he, addressing my father by his Christian name, 'I am delighted to see you; I must treat you to something; what shall it be? will you have some apples?' and immediately turned to the display of fruit furnished by a basket woman who stood near."

It was not till the month of April, 1757, that Goldsmith appears to have formed any established connexion with the press; his first initiation into literary drudgery being a year's engagement to assist in the *Monthly Review*, which was then conducted by Griffiths, and his wife! Henceforward, till the close of his life, he was compelled to labour assiduously, and with little intermission, for booksellers and publishers: and

Mr. Prior's biography "men number not." he was not a feeling physician; smith the one been for to desecr thing p as if the The wo the latte hence t been en note an port of erion, verance compar find th and pat this ad that he most u upon so seen co forced own peo to be wr if we ca the ma great p professi the supe await th overbal act of and fan that, af that mo feel, if h play! We l wide an return t must ac of the p perform gatherer poet qui of a di cellaneo residence Salisbur ple Excl his plac which b ditions a author and a fi his havi nowned infected desire t cesses; i present slightest ture to latter in and Oli "All in richer b for the d was, th the tropics,

Mr. Prior, according to the approved custom of biographers, vents the usual lamentation over "men of genius compelled to furnish a stated number of pages, to work whether disposed or not." This is a common-place that deserves to be numbered in the first rank of popular fallacies. The struggle and the sufferings attendant upon literature, when adopted as a profession, are not greater than the struggle and the sufferings attendant upon the bar, the church, or the physic: it might be fairly assumed, that Goldsmith thought them not so great, as he deserted the one to better his fortune in the other. It has been far too much the custom with biographers to descant upon the trials of literature as something peculiar and pre-eminent, and to forget, as if they never had existed, its compensations. The world sees and sums the former, while, with the latter, "the stranger intermeddeth not," and hence the wayward child of genius has too often been encouraged to rest content in the indiscriminate and degrading sympathy, and perhaps support, of others, rather than trust to energy and exertion, to hope and its fulfilment, which, by perseverance, he might have found in himself. If we compare literature with other professions, we shall find that hours of enforced toil, and distasteful and patient endurance, are common to all; with this advantage on the side of the literary man, that he has the chance of alighting, aye, in the most ungenial and mechanical of his tasks, upon some new train of thought, some unforeseen conception, which he owes to being thus forced out of the circumscribed round of his own peculiar fancies, and which he may lay aside to be wrought out in future holiday hours. Again, if we carry the comparison higher, and rise from the many who labour without great desert, or great profit, to the few who occupy the loftiest professional ranks, we cannot but believe, that the superior, more certain worldly rewards, which await the lawyer, the physician, the divine, are overbalanced by the author's enjoyment in the act of creating—in outpouring his thoughts, and fancies, and feelings,—in the consciousness, that, after all is said and done, *it is his mind that moves the world*, which he must and will feel, if he only give himself and his fortunes fair play!

We have here incidentally touched upon a wide and noble subject: it may be that we shall return to it on a future occasion; at present, we must accompany Goldsmith, and pass over many of the particulars concerning his smaller literary performances, which have been so industriously gathered together by Mr. Prior. We find the poet quitting the *Monthly Review* in consequence of a difference with Griffiths—writing on miscellaneous subjects for other publications, "his residence being at this time in the vicinity of Salisbury Square, Fleet Street," and the "Temple Exchange Coffee House, near Temple Bar," his place of resort, and the house of call to which he directed his patients. Among the additions to his acquaintance, were Grainger, the author of the wholly forgotten 'Sugar Cane,' and a far greater man, Dr. Percy. The fame of his having made friendship with persons so renowned, seems to have reached Ireland, and infected his younger brother, Charles, with a desire to share his labours, honours, and successes; for he made his way up to London, and presented himself to his brother, without the slightest previous intimation. We can well picture to ourselves his chagrin on finding the latter in mean, if not miserable, circumstances; and Oliver's good-humoured and gay reply—"All in good time, my dear boy; I shall be richer by-and-bye"—was but poor consolation for the destruction of his golden dreams. The end was, that he disappeared one day from the metropolis, almost as suddenly as he had appeared

in it; and, loth to return home with a story of castles-in-air melted away, (the only tale that an Irishman has an antipathy to tell,) embarked for Jamaica, in which island he continued many years. The few letters to relations, written by our Goldsmith at this time, are saddening, from their mixture of forced high spirits and ill-concealed depression. As yet, he had made himself known to the town as author only by translations and anonymous criticisms; he was, however, meditating and issuing subscription proposals for the 'Essay on the present State of Literature in Europe.' The profits of this were, at one time, destined for his outfit to India, in which country he had received a medical appointment. Literature had, as yet, yielded him little fruit, and he was disposed to throw himself once more upon physic as a means of advancement; but, an entry on the books of the College of Surgeons records the end of this scheme—Oliver Goldsmith, being examined, was found unqualified "for mate to an hospital"; and was therefore, fortunately for us, compelled to remain in England,—and create the Primroses and Tony Lumpkin!

Serious pecuniary embarrassments were the consequences of this failure; and some of Goldsmith's appealing letters to Griffiths, written about this time, are painful in the misery of heart which they describe. The two quarrelled seriously, and, on the appearance of the 'Essay' just mentioned, it was coarsely anatomized in the *Monthly Review*, by Kenrick—one of those slanderous, malignant literary adventurers, whose place, alas! is not yet vacant in our critical literature. Some of Goldsmith's indignation at Kenrick's savage and personal attack, gives its peculiar bitterness of tone to the letter (addressed to his brother Henry) whence the following passages are taken:—

"I have passed my days among a parcel of cool designing beings, and have contracted all their suspicious manner in my own behaviour. I should actually be as unfit for the society of my friends at home, as I detest that which I am obliged to partake of here. I can now neither partake of the pleasure of a revel, nor contribute to raise its jollity. I can neither laugh nor drink; have contracted a hesitating disagreeable manner of speaking, and a visage that looks ill-nature itself; in short, I have thought myself into a settled melancholy, and an utter disgust of all that life brings with it. • • • Teach then, my dear Sir, to your son thrift and economy. Let his poor wandering uncle's example be placed before his eyes. I had learned from books to be disinterested and generous, before I was taught from experience the necessity of being prudent. I had contracted the habits and notions of a philosopher, while I was exposing myself to the approaches of insidious cunning; and often by being, even with my narrow finances, charitable to excess, I forgot the rules of justice, and placed myself in the very situation of the wretch who thanked me for my bounty. When I am in the remotest part of the world, tell him this, and perhaps he may improve from my example. But I find myself again falling into my gloomy habits of thinking."

"My mother, I am informed, is almost blind; even though I had the utmost inclination to return home, under such circumstances I could not, for to behold her in distress without a capacity of relieving her from it, would add too much to my splenetic habit."

Before the publication of the 'Essay,' however, Goldsmith had advertised what he himself calls "a catch-penny Life of Voltaire." He was now beginning to emerge into notice—to extend his acquaintance among the gifted, but his residence was still wretched, and devoid of home comforts, being nothing more lordly than the first floor of a house in Green Arbour Court. An old woman, who professed, as a child, to have known him while he lodged there, described him to Mr. Prior as good-natured and popular among the poor inhabitants of the purlieu—sometimes with cakes and sweetmeats tempting little child-

ren to come in to him, or making them dance to his flute—sometimes passing an evening with a shrewd, humorous, watch-maker, his neighbour—always improvident and generous. We next find him giving its best honey to 'The Bee,' a short-lived periodical—in those sprightly essays which have since become so popular in a collected form—besides writing for the Magazines; and connecting himself with Smollett, who was a perfect Scribe in his day—for the number of his speculations and compilations, on various subjects, and the literary men he employed. He was also employed by Newbery in the *Public Ledger*, to which many of his Chinese Letters (better known under their second title, 'The Citizen of the World') were addressed. In the two following years, 1760 and 1761, we find further traces of his upward progress: Johnson condescended to eulogize him at Sir Joshua Reynolds's table, and Green Arbour Court was exchanged for a more respectable lodging in Fleet Street.

Though the history of almost every subsequent engagement made by Goldsmith reminds us of some notorious passage, or suggests some remark on days and personages, as full of anecdote and character as if they had been not only chronicled, but also bespoken by Boswell, we can only enumerate the titles of most of his productions. Among these were a pamphlet on the Cock Lane Ghost, for which he received the sum of three guineas from Newbery—the notes of advance and payment made by the publisher to himself and Doctor Johnson, are indeed curious, when compared with similar documents of our own age. A History of Mecklenburgh—a country then an object of interest, on account of its having given a Queen to England—and an Abridgment of Plutarch, must also be mentioned. In the year 1762 the Chinese Letters were collected and given to the public as 'The Citizen of the World'—they were coldly received at first, and made their way but slowly. In the summer of the same year the poet visited Bath—partly for his health, partly to collect materials for a Life of the Autocrat of powdered heads and minuets, the renowned Beau Nash—many have read his Memoirs, an amusing, flimsy little book, without guessing by whose hand they were written. He is supposed, too, to have assisted in a translation of Voltaire's works, published about this time, under the superintendence of Smollett and Dr. Francklin.

These years of close and unrenowned occupation were more fertile in acquaintances than "coined monies." There were few classes of people, in this wide and parti-coloured London world, with whom Goldsmith did not mix: one night, we hear of his watching the toilette of the Cherokee Chiefs, and coming to the conclusion that coxcombry is not of necessity an accompaniment to a state of high civilization alone; or taking a sketch from life (who can have forgotten his paper on the London Clubs!) at the Robin Hood Debating Society; on the next, less at his ease, we suspect, in the more instructed circles in which Johnson laid down the law, and Boswell listened, *ore rotundo*. The latter, as irritable in his intercourse with every one else as he was tolerant in his servility towards Johnson, may have been told by some good-natured friend or other of his having been dubbed "a Scotch bur" by "poor Goldy," who, though called "an inspired idiot" by Horace Walpole, could yet sometimes vent a sharp and pertinent saying as well as his neighbours. But there needs not this supposition to explain Boswell's jealousy; the fear lest one, so highly praised by the bulky sage, should be chosen as his biographer, is, of itself, enough to account for the splenetic and depreciating tone of his anecdotes. We could gossip for another dozen

of columns about these and other collateral matters, but must restrain ourselves, and refer our friends to Mr. Prior, whose diligence as a collector is, at this portion of his work, particularly conspicuous,—simply noting, that at the end of the year 1762, Goldsmith removed to Islington, where he continued to reside for two years; that he is said, about this time, to have projected a new edition of Pope's works, and to have revised and written a preface to a treatise on Natural History. Besides these, and other matters of less importance, we must mention as belonging to this period, a translation of the 'Lives of Christ and the Fathers,' and the 'History of England, in a series of letters from a nobleman to his son,' so long attributed to Lord Lyttelton. To accomplish all this miscellaneous labour, (some of which must have been dull enough,) regularity and application were necessary; and with a few words concerning his habits of study and composition, we will close our notice.

"In the morning he read Hume, Rapin, Carte and Kennet; made a few memoranda for his guidance; walked out with a friend or two for a country excursion, of which he was always fond; returned to a temperate dinner and a cheerful evening, and seized a few hours from sleep to write as much as he had contemplated by the studies of the morning. He professed to derive advantage in facility of composition, an easier style, and more perfect knowledge of the subject, by thus having more time to revolve it; but we may believe in this case that his memory was more taxed than his authorities; and if the former misled him at the moment, the error of the night was forgotten to be rectified by recurrence to more certain guides, that of books, in the morning."

We have, as yet, only reached the end of Mr. Prior's first volume, and must, therefore, once again return to the subject.

OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

Contrasts, or a Parallel between the Architecture of the Fifteenth and Nineteenth Centuries, by A. W. Pugin.—We hardly know how to treat this work, which is undoubtedly the production of a clever man; but there is such a mixture of zealous love for Gothic art and of rabid prejudice,—such an absence of the courtesies usually observed by one professional man to his brethren in art,—that, with all its pungency and wit, and in many instances just remark, it seems rather to contain the outpourings of disappointment, than the sober and candid protest of a man of sense against the present state of Architecture in this country. Mr. Pugin, who has hitherto followed with credit to himself in the footsteps of his father, by publishing admirable works on Gothic ornament, and in illustration of Gothic edifices, may be considered at the present moment,—and we say it without calling in question the talents of many other architects,—the representative of Gothic art in this country. Common report attributes to him a great share in more than one of the designs lately exhibited for the New Houses of Parliament, although his name did not appear in the list of competitors on that occasion; and it is undoubted that, with his perfect mastery over the pencil, and his profound acquaintance with the genius of Gothic composition and detail, it is his own fault that he does not take a high rank in his profession, rather than thus seek for a doubtful reputation as a caricaturist of the works of his brother architects. We have no hesitation in saying that the means here employed are little creditable either to his judgment or his feelings. We hardly know the specific object he has in view, for there are two equally prominent: the one to degrade the reformed religion and exalt the Roman Catholic; the other, to show by his plates that the productions of these times in Architecture are bad, because they are not Gothic: both purposes he seeks to effect by contrasting the edifices, the ritual, and the ceremonies of the one with the like circumstances in the other. He commences with a rapid glance at the state of Architecture in this country immediately preceding the change of religion. He then pursues

its history in the pillage and destruction of the churches under Henry VIII., Edward VI., and after the final establishment of what he is pleased to call the new religion. He next proceeds to notice the present degraded state of ecclesiastical buildings, seizing occasion to revile the whole hierarchy of the established church. The 'Contrasts' are contained in sixteen plates, and offer specimens of most of the leading Professors of the present day, mixed up with some of less note; Soane, Smirke, Nash, Wilkins, Burton, and Inwood, have their least creditable productions contrasted with the florid edifices of the most florid period of Gothic art,—works in which neither material, nor cost, nor size, have been objects of consideration. Thus, the Church of Langham Place is placed in juxtaposition with that of St. Mary Radcliffe, Bristol.—The Chapel Royal, Brighton, with St. George's Chapel, Windsor.—King's Cross at Battle-bridge (how low has Mr. Pugin here descended for a parallel) with Chichester Cross.—The Entrance to King's College with the superb Gateway of Christ's College, Oxford. Perhaps the fairest contrast is that of a Professor's own house with a magnificently enriched specimen of the *renaissance* in the Rue de l'Horloge, Rouen. It may with some justice be urged, that a professional man, unrestricted in his means, and unfettered in his fancy, might have displayed more taste, refinement, and judgment, than in the strange façade of the house in Lincoln's Inn-fields. But was it generous to strike a blow at one so advanced in years, who, with all his eccentricities, has produced some effective buildings, and whose abstract love of art is equal to his critic's, and shown, too, in a more noble way,—not by depreciating the talents of his contemporaries, but in applying a splendid portion of his fortune to the collection of a Library and Museum celebrated throughout Europe, and in endowing an institution for the cultivation of Architecture? The end of the two may be the same, but the means which are employed are as widely different as nobleness and generosity from splanetic animosity.

The Solace of Song: Short Poems, suggested by scenes visited on a Continental Tour chiefly in Italy.—This volume is most beautifully got up, daintily printed, and adorned with a series of vignettes which may rank among the very best specimens of the art of wood-engraving. Perhaps we are wrong in thus placing the shell before the kernel—in giving these external embellishments preference over the thoughts and verses they were intended to illustrate; but we have no choice, for the poems, though they bespeak an amiable and meditative mind, and an observant eye, have not the spontaneous music, the rich and harmonious colouring, which we require from effusions owing their birth to the scenery and climate of the South;—their author has not done justice to himself, we readily believe. A fairer specimen of his powers cannot be found than these opening verses of 'A Night in the Coliseum':—

Lo! here the giant-mass,
Hid 'neath its native grass,
Sloping its green sides toward the cloudless sky.
While, ranging line o'er line,
Like some exhausted mine,
Its hundred caverns meet the wanderer's eye;
And tree and herb their rule o'er rocks maintain;
The claimants of the earth, when man hath ceased to reign.

By rude and broken ways,
Threading the arches' maze,
Which, far receding, dimly stretch before,
Our gloomy way we hold
Where they their depths unfold,
Like yawning caves, that skirt some mountain shore—
Till you bright moon-lit rent invites us nigh,
Whence spreads the circling bound, domed by the calm blue sky.

High in her silvery car,
With many a twinkling star,
The moon ascends serene the brow of night;
And in her vigour's prime,
Untouched by envious Time,
O'erlays each broken arch with sheets of light;
Careless what work of man survive or die,
She nightly fills her horn, and nightly walks the sky.

She never checked her beam,
But poured as rich a gleam
O'er this huge pile, with human blood bedewed,
Nor cared what caught her glance,
Amid the whirling dance,
The golden throne, or bones yon area strewed—
And, still unchanged, her silver rain she showers,
O'er arch and column crushed—trees, herbs, and budding flowers.

List of New Books.—Modern Society, by Miss C. Sinclair, cr. 8vo. 7s. 6d.—Zuluca, by Dr. Arthur, 3 vols. post 8vo. 31s. 6d. bds.—Phillips's Translation of the Pharmacopoeia, 8vo. 10s. 6d. bds.—The Relaxation; or Book for Christmas, 18mo. 4s. 6d. bds.—Morton's (Rev. C. B.) Sermons, 8vo. 12s. 6d.—Annual Biography and Obituary, 1837, 8vo. 15s. bds.—The Despatches of the Marquis Wellesley, Vol. III. 8vo. 25s.—Evans on the Endemic Fevers of the West Indies, 8vo. 9s. cl.—Tints of Talent, from many Pencils, 12mo. 5s. cl.—Hare's (Rev. A. W.) Sermons, 1 vols. 12mo. 16s. cl.—Second Annual Report of the Poor Law Commissioners, 8vo. 6s. cl.—Brodie on the Nervous Affections, 8vo. 4s. bds.—Letters from Spain and Barbary, 8vo. 6s. cl.—An Address to the People of Scotland on Combe's Constitution of Man, 8vo. 6s. bds.—Dialogues in the Devonshire Dialect, with Glossary, by J. P. Palmer, 8vo. 5s. bds.—La Hogue-Ble de Hambie, a Tradition of Jersey, 2 vols. 12mo. 14s. cl.—Rees's Welsh Saints, 8vo. 10s. 6d. bds.—Abercrombie on the Culture and Discipline of the Mind, 18mo. 1s. cl.—Wood's Ornithological Guide, royal 12mo. 5s. cl.—Stowell's Sermons, 12mo. 5s. cl.—Supplementary Dissertation to Cunningham's Fables of the Times, 8vo. 3s. 6d. bds.—Russell's Connection of Sacred and Profane History, Vol. III. 8vo. 14s. bds.—Sharpe's Sermons, 8vo. 10s. 6d. bds.—Blacket's History of Ireland to the Union, 12mo. 4s. cl.—Juvenile Sunday Library, Vol. II. 18mo. 4s. cl.—Sherwood's Henry Minner, Part III. new edit. 12mo. 6s. cl.—Mary and Florence; or Grave and Gay, by Miss A. F. Tytler, 2nd edit. 1s. 5s. cl.—Pocket Guide to Modern Geography, 32mo. 2s. 6d. cl.—British Flora Medica, by B. H. Barton, and T. Castle, Vol. I. 8vo. 21s. d.—Taylor's Builder's Price Book, new edit. revised and corrected, 1837, 3s. 6d.—Girdlestone's (Rev. C.) Course of Sermons, 2nd edit. 2 vols. 12mo. 14s. bds.—James on the Collects, 12mo. 6th edit. 6s. bds.—Slade on the Epistles, 2 vols. 8vo. 4th edit. 18s. bds.—Cooper's Lectures on Surgery, 5th edit. 6s. 6d. bds.—Bacon's Essays, 32mo. (Tilt's Classics), 1s. 6d. cl.; 2s. silk.—Beattie's Minstrel, 32mo. (Tilt's Classics), 1s. 6d. cl.; 2s. silk.—Questions on the Acts of the Apostles, 2s. in case.—Cox's Medico-Chirurgical Almanac, 1837, 2s. 6d. sheet; 3s. 6d. roller.—Williams's Digest of the Homoeopathic Principles, 8s. 2s. cl.

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP ON LITERATURE AND ART.

At the close of the last session, Parliament, at the instance of the President of the Board of Trade, sanctioned a grant of 1500*l.* to establish in the metropolis a School of Design in the arts connected with manufactures. We understand that a Council has been formed, consisting of several distinguished artists, and gentlemen who have taken an interest in the subject, together with a representation of several of the principal branches of manufactures. Amongst those who have undertaken to assist as members of this body are, Sir Francis Chantrey, R.A., Mr. A.W. Calcott, R.A., Mr. C. L. Eastlake, R.A., Mr. C. R. Cockerell, R.A., Mr. Henry T. Hope, M.P., Mr. Ridley Colborne, M.P., Mr. J. Morison, M.P., Mr. Hawes, M.P., Mr. Bellenden Ker, Alderman Copeland, M.P. (for China), Mr. Thomson, of Clithero, (for calico-printing), Mr. A. Pellatt, (for glass), and others. The Council are at present actively occupied with the President of the Board of Trade, in forming the preliminary arrangements, and the school will be opened as soon as possible.

We must add the titles of a book or two to those we have already announced:—a new edition of 'Lord Chesterfield's Letters, with illustrative notes and anecdotes'—A Memoir of King Charles II. and his court, by Mr. Theodore Hook; with some works of yet slighter staple; among which are Mr. Jerrold's 'Nell Gwynne,' (a difficult subject to manage,)—a new tale, by Mrs. Trollope, who, we hear, has wintered at Vienna—another, 'Rory O'More,' by Mr. Lover; 'The Old Commodore,' by the author of 'Rattlin the Reever;' and Mr. Gleig's 'Traditions of Chelsea College.' We hear also of a series of Sketches of the Domestic Life and Manners of Turkey (if the words may be applied to the life of harems, bazaars, and coffee-houses), in preparation, by Miss Pardoe. We may here add a word to our notice of the magazines, to encourage the *Monthly* in its present better courses; some of the articles it contains are close and interesting; and to say that the *Scottish Magazine* is variously filled with well-selected matters: two papers which interest us by their nationality, are on the proposed 'Astronomical Observatory in Glasgow,' and 'The Neglect of Church Music in Scotland.'

The Oriental Translation Committee has resolved, that a copy of the History of the Temple of Jerusalem, lately published under their auspices, shall be presented to Lady Hester Stanhope, and that it shall be bound in green, the sacred colour of the Mohammedans.

We have been favoured with communications respecting the extraordinary anecdotes of divination

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by the fluid mirror, recorded in Mr. Lane's Egypt. Several persons who have witnessed such exhibitions assure us, that their wonders have not been exaggerated, and that the belief in the preternatural vision of persons who have not reached the age of puberty is general throughout the East. That it has been so from the earliest times may be inferred from the scriptural prediction, "Your young men (rather, your young boys,) shall see visions." The superstitious of the magical powers of the fluid mirror has not however been confined to Asia; one of our correspondents has directed our attention to its prevalence among the Scandinavian tribes, and furnished us with references to Olaus Magnus, and Saxo Grammaticus; but, on looking to these stories, we find them little more than descriptions of the effect likely to be produced by uncertain shadows on the credulous and the ignorant.

A farewell dinner to Mr. C. Kemble was given by the Garrick Club on Tuesday last:—Lord F. Leveson Gower in the chair. The following verses, by J. H. Reynolds, Esq., set to music by Mr. Balfe, and sung by that gentleman, were unanimously encored. Farewell! all good wishes go with him to-day; Rich in name—rich in fame—he has played out the play. Though the sock and the buskin for aye be removed, Still he serves in the train of the drama he lov'd! We now, who surround him, would make some amends For past hours of enjoyment, we court him as friends! Our Chief, nobly born, genius crown'd our zeal shares, Oh! his coronet's hid by the laurel he wears.

Well, wealthy we have been, though fortune may trown, And they cannot but say, that we have had the crown, Shall we never again see the spirit infuse Life—life in the young gallant forms of the muse? Through the heroes and lovers of Shakespeare he ran; All the soul of the soldier—the heart of the man! Shall we never in Cyprus his revels retrace, See him stroll into Angiers with indolent grace, Or greet him in bonnet at fair Dunstanne, Or meet him in moon-lit Verona again? Well, wealthy we have been, &c.

Let the curtain come down—let the scene pass away— There's an autumn when summer hath squandered its day; We may sit by the fire, when we can't by the lamp, And re-people the banquet—re-soldier the camp. Oh nothing can rob us of memory's gold; And though he quits the gorgeous, and we may grow old, With our Shakespeare in hand, and bright forms in our brain, We can dream up our Siddons and Kembles again. Well, wealthy we have been, &c.

SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY

ROYAL SOCIETY.

The Society resumed its meetings on Thursday the 12th; Capt. Smyth, V.P. in the chair.—A paper was read entitled, "An attempt to account for the discrepancy between the actual velocity of sound in air or vapour, and that resulting from theory," by Dr. Ritchie.

[Abstract of Papers read at previous Meetings of the Society—continued from No. 479, p. 923.]

"On the Respiration of Insects. By George Newport, Esq. Communicated by P. M. Roget, M.D., Sec. R.S.

"Although a multitude of facts has been collected relating to the physiology of respiration in insects, attention has seldom been directed to the variations exhibited in this function in the different periods of their existence. The author gives an account, in this paper, of the anatomical and physiological peculiarities which he has noticed in various insects, in their three states of larva, pupa, and imago.

"*Démonstration de l'égalité à deux droites de la somme des angles d'un triangle quelconque, indépendamment de la théorie de parallèles, et de la considération de l'infini. Par M. Paulet, de Genève. Communicated by P. M. Roget, M.D., Sec. R.S.*

"The author demonstrates the equality of the sum of the angles of a triangle to two right angles, by the aid of a preliminary theorem, of which the following is the enunciation. A straight line forming an acute angle with another straight line, will, when sufficiently produced, meet any line, perpendicular to the latter, and situated on the side of the acute angle.

"*Experimental Researches into the Physiology of the Human Voice. By John Bishop, Esq. Communicated by P. M. Roget, M.D., Sec. R.S.*

"The following are the conclusions deduced by the author from the inquiries which form the subject of the present paper.

"1. The vibrations of the glottis are the fundamental cause of all the tones of the human voice.

"2. The vibrating length of the glottis depends conjointly on the tension and resistance of the vocal ligaments, and on the pressure of the column of air in the trachea.

"3. The grave tones vary directly, and the acute tones inversely, as the vibrating length and tension of the vocal ligaments.

"4. The vocal tube is adjusted to vibrate with the glottis by the combined influence of its variations of length and of tension.

"5. The elevation of the larynx shortens the vocal tube; and its depression produces the contrary effect. The diameter and extension of the tube vary reciprocally with the length.

"6. The falsetto tones are produced by a nodal division of the column of air, together with the vocal tube, into vibrating lengths.

"7. The pitch of the vocal organs, when in a state of rest, is, in general, the octave of their fundamental note."

The paper was illustrated by several drawings.

"On the Chemical Changes occurring in Seeds during Germination. By Robert Rigg, Esq. Communicated by P. M. Roget, M.D., Sec. R.S.

"The author infers, from his researches on the subject of a former paper, that during the process of germination there is a production of alcohol, and that oxygen unites with olefiant gas, under the influence of the radicle and plumula. He accounts for the increase of temperature during germination by an alleged difference in the specific heats of the principles before and after that process has commenced; but the methods he employed for establishing the reality of this difference are not detailed.

"The following are the principal conclusions to which the author arrives:

"1. Seeds may, by careful desiccation, be deprived of much water without injuring their vegetating organs.

"2. Their capacity for absorbing water varies with the temperature at which they are kept.

"3. The increase taking place in their volume by the absorption of water is influenced by temperature.

"4. On steeping seeds in water at one temperature the vinous fermentation takes place, but at another this process does not occur.

"5. A decomposition takes place in seeds previously to their germination, and the products are carbonic acid and olefiant gas.

"6. The abstraction of carbon from seeds by the oxygen of the atmosphere is not, as is generally supposed, the specific action which gives rise to germination; but it rather conduces to putrefaction.

"7. The germination of seeds appears to be an action taking place between the olefiant gas, which has been previously formed by a vinous fermentation, and the oxygen of the atmosphere; and is effected by the peculiar operation of the plumula and the rootlets.

"8. This decomposition and combination of the different elements go on, in well-regulated processes, as long as there is any farinaceous matter to be decomposed: the food of the plant being at this time always the oxygen of the atmosphere, and the newly-formed olefiant gas, differing in equivalent combination, according to the peculiar constitution of the plant; and thus the foundation is laid for all that prodigious diversity which characterizes the numberless species of the vegetable creation.

"A Comparison of the late Imperial Standard Troy Pound Weight with a Platina copy of the same, and with other Standards of authority. Communicated by Professor Schumacher, in a Letter to Francis Bailey, Esq., V.P. and Treas. of the Society.

"Professor Schumacher being desirous of procuring an accurate copy of the English Imperial Standard Troy pound weight, for the purpose of comparison with the Danish weights, applied to Capt. Kater, requesting him to cause such copy to be made; which was accordingly done. It was made of brass by Bate; but the result of the weighings not being satisfactory to Professor Schumacher, he desired to have a second copy forwarded to him. As these two copies did not agree in their results, the first was returned to Capt. Kater with a request that he would repeat the weighings. The result confirmed Professor Schumacher's suspicions: and as it was not thought proper that, in an affair of so much importance as the comparison of the standard weights of two nations, any source of

discordance should exist, or even be suspected, (the preceding experiments having been made with a copy of the Imperial standard weight) the Danish Government sent over Capt. Nehus (of the Royal Danish Engineers) to this country for the express purpose of making comparisons with the original standard, in the possession of the Clerk of the House of Commons.

"The weighings took place in the Apartments of this Society, and were partly made with Ramsden's balance, belonging to the Society. Besides the first brass weight above mentioned, there was another brass weight made by Robinson, a platina weight made by Cary, the brass pound weight belonging to the Royal Mint, and the platina pound weight belonging to this Society. These were all subjected to a most rigid and accurate series of weighings by Capt. Nehus, in which every precaution was taken to insure the most correct results. It would be impossible here to follow Capt. Nehus, through all his details: but it may be sufficient now to state that upwards of 600 comparisons were made with the English Imperial standard, all of which are apparently very accordant; but, on account of a singular occurrence connected with the original standard, do not possess that degree of precision, nor afford that satisfaction which ought to attach to an affair of so much importance. For, it appears that not only the specific gravity of the original standard had never been ascertained, but that we are even ignorant of the kind of metal of which it was composed: some persons maintaining that it was of brass, others of copper, and others of bell-metal. And, as the original was totally destroyed in the late fire which consumed the two Houses of Parliament, we cannot now supply this omission. It is well known that the specific gravity of brass may vary from 7.5 to 8.5; so that a difference of at least $\frac{1}{4}$ of a grain might arise from this circumstance alone; setting aside a number of other particulars that require minute attention, and which do not seem to have been attended to in former experiments of this kind. In fact, as Professor Schumacher remarks, though we have thus five different pounds in excellent preservation, and compared with the lost standard, with the greatest care and the best instruments, though the number of these comparisons exceed 600, yet there still remains an uncertainty as to its real weight; and this solely on account of its specific gravity and expansion not being known. And, he adds, that it is to be hoped that no pound will in future be declared a legal standard unless these elements (the knowledge of which is indispensable even for a single comparison with a good balance) are previously determined with the greatest possible precision.

"Besides the account of these numerous weighings, which are stated in detail, Professor Schumacher has given various formulae and tables which will be found of great use and application in any future experiments of the like kind that may be undertaken."

ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY.

Jan. 9.—Sir John Barrow, President, in the chair.—Extracts from several papers were read.

1. A letter from Captain Alexander, dated Clanwilliam, about 200 miles north of Cape Town, Sept. 27th, stating that he had arrived there on his way to the Dámanas country; and after a few days' rest for his oxen, was again to start for the missionary station at Kamiesberg, which would be his next halting place. He had encountered the usual difficulties of bad roads, swollen rivers, heavy rains, &c.; but, he observes with his usual buoyant spirits, "they only served us as an excellent lesson for the future."—"I have visited," says Captain Alexander, "the Cedar Mountains in this neighbourhood, and am about to inspect a Bushman's Cave, with rude drawings in it. I also intend to see the mouth of the Oliphant and Orange rivers, and one or two undescribed bays, before reaching the latter. I am happy to add, all our party is in good health and spirits."

2. A letter from Mr. Vice Consul Willshire, at Mogadore, dated Nov. 29, communicating to the Society that Mr. Davidson started from Wadnoon on the 9th of November with an escort of thirty horsemen, and accompanied by the eldest son of the Sheikh of Wadnoon as far as Yeist, about three days' journey, when he will be consigned to the care of Sheikh Mohammed El Abú, of the Tajacanth tribe, who travels

with him across the Sahara to Timbuctú. Mr. Willshire adds, "every possible precaution has been taken for Mr. Davidson's personal safety, and I entertain the fullest confidence of his success."

3. A letter from Swan River, dated May 22, giving an account of a journey, lately made by Mr. Moore, Judge Advocate at that colony, to the distance of about 90 miles N.E. of Perth, a tract of country not hitherto explored. Mr. Moore states, that he had discovered another river, with an extensive country of rich pasture land beyond it as far as the eye could reach, decidedly the best he had seen in the colony; he had traced the river down towards the sea for about 80 miles, and thus returned to Perth, having been out eleven days with only one policeman and a guide; the natives he met with were very friendly.

4. An account of an ascent of Mount Athos and a visit to its Mountains, in June, 1836, by Lieut. Webber Smith, 48th Regt.

On the south-eastern shore of the districts of Saloniki, three remarkable peninsulas 25 miles in length, by about 5 in breadth, project, nearly parallel to each other, in a south-easterly direction, into the Archipelago, embracing the two gulphs of Monte Santo and Cassandra, or the Singitic and Toronaic gulphs of the ancients. The easternmost of these three promontories, better known by the name of Acte or Mount Athos—the Agion Oros of modern Greeks, and Monte Santo of the Franks, is joined to the main land by a low sandy isthmus, about five miles long by nearly one and a half broad; and through which the famous canal was cut by Xerxes, slight traces of which yet remain.

Immediately at the commencement of the peninsula, Mount Athos may be said to begin by an abrupt ascent of 200 feet, and from this to the town of Kares, about the centre of the peninsula, the height may vary from 250 to 500 feet; yet with one or two exceptions, may be termed a table land, intersected by many deep ravines, and, when the soil will support it, richly and beautifully wooded, chiefly with oak and chestnut. From Kares the land rises more rapidly, still rocky, broken, and well wooded, till you approach the great peak which shoots up in solitary magnificence, forming a barren cave of white limestone rising to the height of 6350 feet above the sea; close to the cliffs at the southern end, we learn from Captain Copeland's late survey, no bottom was found with 60 fathoms of line.

The road by which Mount Athos is ascended, is only practicable two-thirds of the distance for mules; from the Monastery of Lavra on the eastern shore, the path winds round the southern extremity of the Cape, at about 600 feet above the sea, and gradually turns round the mountain, so that the chief ascent is made from the north-west. The ascent is very difficult, and occasionally perilous, and occupies five and a half hours, but the boundless view from the summit amply repays the fatigue; "at our feet the islands of Lemnos, of Thaso and Samothraki; to the north the coast and mountains of Thrace and Macedonia, linked with all the associations of by-gone times; while, turning to the west, the mountains of Olympus, and Pelion, and Ossa, in Thessaly, revived all our classical recollections."

The peninsula of Mount Athos contains 20 monasteries, besides villages and cells inhabited by Calovers. The two chief monasteries are inhabited by 120 persons, besides 50 mendicants attached to them; the whole 20 contain about 1500 men, including 300 mendicants: this is far from being a full number, as they have not yet recovered the effects of the Greek revolution, at which time the monasteries were occupied by Turkish soldiers, and the monks fled.

At the village of Kares, a weekly fair or market is held, which presents the uncommon scene of a fair without noise, and a crowd without a woman; no female is on any account admitted within the precincts of the mount, nor indeed anything, it is said, of the feminine gender.

5. An account of Mr. W. T. Hamilton's journey in October, 1836, from Amasia to Angora in Asia Minor; and on the site of Tavium. Communicated by his father, Mr. T. W. Hamilton.

About 40 miles west of Amasia is the large and almost unknown town of Chorúm. It is situated in the middle of an extensive plain stretching north

and south, through which a small stream flows to the southward, and afterwards falls into the Iris. On a low rising hill to the south-east of the town are the remains of a square castle built by Sultan Murad; in its walls are numerous Greek inscriptions, and fragments of columns, the former chiefly sepulchral, and of Christian times. Chorúm is inhabited by bigoted Mussulmans; there is scarcely a Greek or Armenian in the place, where, owing perhaps to its insulated position, a Frank was never seen before.

The position of Kara-hissar is striking; in the midst of a high undulating plain, surrounded at some distance by low broken hills, near a steep and lofty mass of black rock rising from three to four hundred feet above the plain; the ruins at its base clearly indicate the existence of an ancient town, probably Turkish. At a neighbouring village, Mr. Hamilton was fortunate enough to find some hitherto undescribed remains of a gateway of a town or a temple, with about forty feet of wall on each side, many of the large stones covered with sculptured figures of children, cattle, monsters, &c.

Yazgát, ten hours south of Chorúm, is a modern town, founded about 80 years since by the father of the famous Chapán Oglú. About six hours north-west of this place, are the famous ruins of Boghaz-Keui, discovered within the last two years by M. Texier. Mr. Hamilton says "the modern village is situated near the mouth of a narrow defile and at the foot of steep limestone mountains which form the southern and eastern boundaries of a rich and extensive plain. Between this village and the gorge, on the slope of the hills, are the remains of the ancient town. Huge blocks of marble in several places mark the line of the walls towards the plain, and on the summit of a hill behind are the remains of a fortified citadel. The ruin, however which throws everything else into shade, and which, I think, can be no other than the temple of Jupiter mentioned by Strabo, is the perfect ground-plan of a magnificent and gigantic temple; its dimensions 219 feet by 140. The other interesting object here, is the bas-relief sculptured on the rock, which appears to have been an eminent quarry. It is a very curious relic, and, I am inclined to think, represents the meeting of two Kings, possibly the Kings of Persia and Lydia."

Mr. Hamilton then proceeds to inquire what ancient town stood on the site of the ruins of Boghaz-Keui, and has little hesitation in pronouncing that it must have been Tavium. Two modern towns, viz. Chorúm and Yazgát, have been assigned as its present representative; but after discussing all the reasons for and against their claims, he feels bound to reject them. Mr. Hamilton then states at length the superior claims of Boghaz-Keui: 1st, from its commanding situation; 2ndly, from the extent and magnificence of the ruins; and, in conclusion, from its general agreement with the distances given in the ancient Itineraries; whence he concludes, that Boghaz-Keui is the site of Tavium, the principal town of the Trocmi of Galatia.

Lastly, the President, in proposing the names of Lieutenants Grey and Lushington for election as members, congratulated the Society on the successful results of the application to His Majesty's Government to send out an expedition to complete the survey of the north-western coasts of Australia, and of Torres Straits, and also of some portion of the interior of the country. He further stated, that he had at length the pleasure of presenting to the Society the gold medal, annually given by His Majesty, as a reward for Geographical discovery.

The medal, which was handed round, bears on the obverse, the head of His Majesty as the donor, and on the reverse, the figure of Minerva (pacific) presenting a wreath of laurel, with a globe and sextant; the legend, *Ob terras reclusas*. It is a beautiful specimen of Mr. Wyon's good taste and skill in execution.

GEOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

Jan. 4.—Mr. Lyell, President, in the chair.

The paper which was read contained some remarks on the elevation of the coast of Chili, by Mr. Caldecleugh, F.G.S. Previously to the author's return to South America in 1835, he was induced to suspend his opinion relative to the accounts which had been published of the effects of the great earthquake of 1822. Since his return, however, he has investigated

the evidences of alteration of level on the Chilean coast; and he is now convinced that there are indisputable proofs of a relative change of land and sea, produced not only by that earthquake, but by other similar phenomena. In detailing the results of his inquiries, Mr. Caldecleugh gives all the historical and documentary evidence which he has been able to consult; and he shows, by quotations from the works of the Abate Molina, Frezier, Ulloa, and Feuillée, that many rocks, during the last 120 years, have been raised either from a depth which did not require their being laid down in charts, or from a well-known depth below the level of the sea to a height of many feet above it. Thus, the Belem rock in the Bay of Concepcion, which, in the chart of Ulloa, is not laid down, has now only two fathoms upon it at low water. In the Bay of Valparaiso is a rock which the same author says "should be looked out for with care," not being then visible, but which has now always a ripple upon it; and other rocks near the Cruz de Reyes, which in 1821 were covered at all times of the tide, are now four feet above the level of high-water mark. In the port of Coquimbo, Feuillée, writing in 1770, guards mariners against some rocks on the west side of the southern entrance, which were then *à fleur d'eau*; but three of these rocks, called the Pelicans, are now about twelve feet above low-water mark. In the same port is a rock called the Tortoise, which, in the time of Frezier and Feuillée, was from five to six feet out of the water; though it is now about nine feet above the level of high tide. Mr. Caldecleugh gives also full accounts of the change of soundings, and the increase of land produced by the accumulation of debris brought down by the streams,—separating the facts which they present from those connected with earthquakes.

In addition to the proofs given by Mrs. Calcott, and an anonymous author in a paper in 'The Journal of Science,' of the effects of the earthquake of 1822, Mr. Caldecleugh states that, in 1821, some timber, lying on one side of a street or causeway which wound round an old fort, was secured by ropes to prevent its removal at high water; but that the spot is now seven feet above the action of the tide; and persons who escaped on board vessels remarked that the sentries before an old fort on the summit of the hill, over the ruins of the town, who were previously visible from the feet upwards, had, after the earthquake, half the body concealed by the fore part of the cliff.

Mr. Caldecleugh also gives an account of the effects produced by the great earthquake of the 20th February, 1835, chiefly from the observations of Captain Fitzroy, full details of which have been already laid before our readers.

The President then announced that he had received from the Foreign Office a translation of an article which had appeared in the South American Journal, 'El Araucano,' and written by Don Mariano Rivero; but as none except original papers were read at the Society's meetings, he could only state that Don Mariano Rivero dissents entirely from the opinion that earthquakes have produced changes of level in the Bay of Valparaiso.

The communication was accompanied by a letter from Colonel Walpole to Lord Palmerston: the following extract from which was read by the Secretary:—

"I have seen the ground; I have heard from persons long resident on the very spot alluded to, both previous to the earthquake of 1822, and still residing there, accurate observers of events, statements in direct corroboration of M. Rivero, and whom he could not have consulted; and it is difficult to conceive why those whose opinions he considers as inconsiderately put forth, should have drawn their conclusions from the mere appearance of a piece of ground not more than 200 yards of the whole circumference of a bay of considerable extent, unless it is from that very general failing which permits individuals attached to a particular theory to draw their inferences in favour of that theory, without caring to investigate very accurately the premises from which they are deduced."

A short notice on the proofs of recent elevation on the coast of Chili, by Charles Darwin, Esq. M.A. F.G.S., was afterwards read.

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by Captain Fitzroy; and the part of the coast more particularly described extends from sixty miles south of Valparaiso to eighty north of it. Throughout the whole of this line extensive beds of shells were found, elevated at various heights, from the level of the present sea beach to 250 feet above it. A few were found at much greater elevations, but their origin was subject to doubt.

At Valparaiso the position of these shells was examined with particular care by the author, together with Mr. Alison. The circumstances which led to the belief that they had been accumulated in their present position, when the sea occupied a different level, were the following: their great numbers, forming extensive and horizontal beds; whereas the heaps of shells which in *Tierra del Fuego* are known to have been collected by the inhabitants, always retain a conical figure;—their position at the extremities of inaccessible headlands, where there appears no possible inducement for the inhabitants to bring the shells for the purpose of eating;—the large proportional number of extremely small shells—their brittle and decayed condition; and lastly, the state of decomposition, bearing an evident relation to the comparative height of the various situations at which the shells were lying. Mr. Darwin alluded to a case near Callao, on the coast of Peru, where, from the nature of the climate, rain never falls, and where a most perfect gradation of change might be traced from the entire shells, only a little above the beach, to a mere layer of calcareous powder, without an indication of organic structure, which coated the ground at a greater elevation. The most unequivocal proof of a recent rise is drawn from *Balanidae* found adhering to the rock above the reach of the highest tides. Mr. Alison, upon removing the dung of birds from the summit of a projecting point at Valparaiso, found the attached shells at the height of fourteen feet above high-water mark. Mr. Darwin also observed *Balanidae* similarly situated at the Rapel, sixty miles south of Valparaiso, and at Quintero, a few miles to the north of it. The present position of an ancient sea wall, which was built in 1680 at Valparaiso, cannot be otherwise explained than by a change of level. The appearance of the granitic rocks, both to the north and south of the bay, also bear testimony to the same fact, of an elevation to the amount of about fourteen feet. The position of the church of San Agustín was ascertained with care; and it was found to stand nineteen feet six inches above high-water mark; hence, allowing for its probable position when built (in 1614), the greatest amount of possible change cannot have exceeded fifteen feet in the long period of 220 years. Mr. Darwin considers it certain that the land was elevated during the earthquake of 1822. The rise of the land, even in the Bay of Valparaiso, was not equal; for a part of a fort which was not formerly visible from a certain spot, subsequently to the earthquake, fell within the line of vision. There is good reason to believe that part of the most recent rise of the land, attested by the *Balanidae* and position of the sea wall, has been due to changes acting previously to 1822, as well as to that earthquake itself; and likewise to an elevation produced by insensible degrees since that period.—Mr. Darwin believes that the Island of Chiloe is at present rising in a manner very similar to the coast of Norway. But it is a curious question, whether these changes take place by very small quantities during each trifling earthquake, or independently of such moments of disturbance. The opposite, or eastern shore of South America, (where earthquakes are never experienced,) from the Rio Plata to the Strait of Magellan, has been elevated within the same recent period as the coast of the Pacific. It is impossible to doubt that these changes of level belong to one class of events. The earthquakes, the volcanic eruptions, and the sudden elevations of the ground, which all follow the coast line of the Pacific, ought perhaps to be considered as irregularities in the order of some more widely extended phenomenon.

To the northward of Valparaiso, extensive beds of shells were found, which the common people of the country attributed to the Deluge. The author gives a very brief notice respecting the marine origin of the terraces at Coquimbo, described by Capt. Basil Hall, and discussed by Mr. Lyell. The proofs rest on the occurrence of recent

shells imbedded in a friable calcareous rock, and elevated 250 feet above the sea. This calcareous stratum passes into a shelly mass, chiefly composed of fragments of *Balanidae*, &c.; and this again overlies a sandstone, abounding with silicified bones of gigantic sharks, mingled with extinct species of oysters and *Perna* of a great size. The intermediate bed contains some shells, in common with the upper, in which all are recent, and with the lowest, in which the greater number are extinct. The phenomena of the parallel terraces and of the elevated shells occur in a strongly marked manner in the valleys of Guasco and Copiapó. The latter is situated 350 miles to the north of Valparaiso, and at an equal distance to the south of it; at Concepcion and Imperial there is an abundance of elevated shells. In conclusion, Mr. Darwin thinks that it is impossible for an observer to travel along the coast of Chili and not to discover innumerable proofs of elevations of the land within the period of recent shells.

ZOOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

Dec. 27.—Richard Owen, Esq. in the chair.—The communications read were, a continuation of the paper by M. Frederic Cuvier, on the *Rodentia* of the family of *Jerboas*; and Mr. Bennett's paper on the natural history and habits of the *Spermaceti Whale*.

Jan. 5.—N. A. Vigors, Esq. in the chair.—From the report of the council read by Mr. Yarrell, it appeared that the total receipts of the past month were 566l. 17s. 6d., in addition to 2024l. received from the sale of *Exchequer* bills. Amongst the donations to the Museum, was one from the Commissioners of Affairs of India, containing the skins of 87 birds and 2 quadrupeds; several reptiles preserved in spirits, and a collection of insects made by the Euphrates Expedition, under the command of Col. Chesney. The number of visitors to this department was stated as 269, from whom the sum of 3l. had been received; and the report announced the completion of the works that had been in progress, and that it had been recently heated with hot water. The number of visitors to the Gardens was stated as 2449, from whom 69l. 11s. was received. A list of the stock at the gardens, with an account of the mortality during the past month, was given, from which it appeared that the present amount was 298 mammalia, 702 birds, and 24 reptiles; making a total of 1024 specimens. The report further announced that the council had advertised a list of premiums for the importation, breeding, and domestication of animals, to consist of medals, the design of which, by Thomas Landseer, was exhibited for the inspection of the members. The prize subjects are the following:—

1. For the importation of a pair of Musk Oxen; a specimen of *Hippopotamus*, male or female; or a pair of *Ornithogryx paradoxus*.
2. To the breeder of the greatest number of *Curassows* in the year 1837.
3. To the importer of male and female Indian Pheasants, of a species not already alive in this country.
4. To the breeder of the best specimens of Indian Fowls in 1837.
5. To the breeder of the most rare or interesting foreign animal in 1837.
6. For the best essay on the care and treatment of the different species of the genus *Felis* in confinement.

BOTANICAL SOCIETY.—Jan. 5.—J. E. Gray, Esq. President, in the chair.

A communication was read from Mr. Cooper, the Curator, on the distribution of the localities of plants in *Battersea Fields*, illustrated by a map. The plants were characterized under the following heads, as found in: 1st. Meadows and pastures; 2nd. Cultivated fields; 3rd. Osier grounds; 4th. *Battersea Common*; 5th. Ponds and ditches; and 6th. Market gardens. So numerous were the indigenous plants in this locality, that of 104 natural orders of British flowering plants mentioned in Dr. Lindley's first edition of the *Synopsis of the British Flora*, 61 were found in this locality; of 503 genera of British flowering plants, 214 were distributed here; and out of 1500 estimated species of British flowering plants, 406 were found dispersed in a space of but one and a half miles in length, and a mile in breadth. In a subsequent conversation, the President stated that more than two-thirds of the fresh water shells of this country were found in this district.

A paper was also read from Mr. Thomas Han-

cock, descriptive of the plants found in the neighbourhood of Bristol.

MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

SAT.	Artists' Conversazione	Eight, P.M.
	Westminster Medical Society	Eight.
MON.	Statistical Society	Eight.
	Medico-Botanical (Anniversary)	Eight.
	Institute of British Architects	Eight.
TUES.	Civil Engineers (Anniversary)	Seven.
	Linnæan Society	Eight.
	Horticultural Society	Eight.
WED.	Geological Society	Eight.
	Society of Arts	Eight.
THUR.	Royal Society	Eight.
	Society of Antiquaries	Eight.
FRI.	Royal Institution	Eight.

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA.

DRURY LANE.

This Evening, THE DEVIL ON TWO STICKS; and THE PANTOMIME.
On Monday, A Grand Juvenile Night, when THE PANTOMIME will be played the first piece; after which BLACK-EYED SUSAN (William, Mr. Gann); to conclude with THE DEVIL ON TWO STICKS.
Tuesday, CINDERELLA; and THE PANTOMIME.

OLYMPIC.

This Evening, Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, ONE HOUR; or, the Arrival Ball; after which THE YACHTING PARTY, to which will be added HE WOULD BE AN ACTOR; to conclude with RIQUET WITH THE TUFT, in which Mrs. Honey, Mr. C. Mathews, and Madame Vestris will appear.

CLASSICAL CHAMBER CONCERTS. WILLIS'S ROOMS, King-street, St. James's.—Messrs. Mori, Watts, Moralt, Lindley, and Dracott.—The Directors beg to announce that in consequence of a large number of the Subscribers being absent from town, these Concerts will not commence before Wednesday, February 1, when they will be continued every alternate week. The Performance will consist of Trios, Quartets, Quintets, Octets, &c. to be performed by Messrs. Mori, Watts, Moralt, Lindley, and Dracott, assisted by Messrs. William, Barrett, Platt, Bauman, Harper, &c. interspersed with Vocal Music to be performed by the most talented vocalists. Pianists—Mrs. Anderson, Madame Dulcken, M. Benedict, and Mr. Moscheles. Translated Subscription Tickets, 10s. 6d. each, to be had at Mori and Lavenu's Musical Library, 28, New Bond-street.

KING'S CONCERT ROOMS, Hanover-square.—MOSCHELES'S SOIREE'S OF CLASSICAL PIANO-FORTE MUSIC.—Mr. Moscheles, in accordance with the increasing taste for classical music, has the honour to announce to the public and friends, that he intends giving THREE SOIREE'S, on Saturdays, February 4th and 18th, and March 4th, when he will perform a Selection of the most eminent Piano-forte Works, by Scarlatti, S. Bach, Handel, Beethoven, Weber, Mendelssohn, and other great masters, hitherto unheard in public in this country. These performances will be interspersed with select Vocal Music, conducted by Sir G. Smart, particulars of which he will shortly announce. Terms of Subscription for three Soirees, One Guinea; a single ticket, Half a Guinea. List of Subscription at Mr. Chappell's, Bond-street; the Hanover-square Rooms; Messrs. Colclough and Colclough, 36, Cheapside; and at Mr. Moscheles's, 3, Chester-place, Regent's-park.

LYCEUM.—Opera Buffa.—The simple and pretty old story of 'Nina Pazzo,' once again set to music by Signor Coppola, and its principal parts performed by Mlle. Elguerra Giannoni, (her first appearance,) Signors Catone, Ronconi, and Ruggiero, was brought out on Thursday night. The music of this opera is beneath criticism—vague, crude, and noisy,—without melody and without science; and we could not help thinking how desperate its effect would have been, if it had been sung and walked through by English artists, instead of being wrought up into something pleasant to hear, by the passionate Italians, to whom it was intrusted, and whose performance we can hardly praise too much. The *débütante* (it is difficult to believe a rumour current in the house, that this was her first appearance on any stage,) is possessed of three excellent gifts:—a most expressive countenance, (in many of its changes reminding us of poor Malibran's),—a rich and extensive voice, bounded by some deep contralto notes,—and (best of all) a mind to conceive, and a heart to feel. The music gave her no opportunity for the display of executive power; but we have heard something too much of snuff-box brilliancy for the last two seasons from the artists at the King's Theatre, and rejoice in the chaster and more genuine style of singing which just now has a very strong hold in the Lyceum. In short, we are delighted with the new *prima donna*. Her chief supporters, Signors Catone and Ronconi, did their very best for the trumpery music they had to sing; the appearance and attitudes of the latter are among the most graceful and picturesque things we have ever seen on the stage. We could not hope for a more thoroughly satisfactory company than the *corps* of young artists here drawn together, and are impatient for the fulfilment of the promise, which assigns them all wretched occupation than they have hitherto found, in Mozart's 'Nozze di Figaro,' which is to be produced shortly.

VOCAL CONCERTS.—We were glad once more to be within hearing of a madrigal, at the first of these

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